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JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE

VOLUME V

SEPTEMBER, 1930

NUMBER 1

EDITORIAL

With this number, the JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE enters upon its second year under its present editorial direction and management. The co-operation of our associate editors and of our many subscribers throughout the country has assured us that we may count on their continued support during the year 1930-1931.

May we urge every reader to give to the staff his earnest co-operation. We desire representative articles describing actual practices in schools. Such articles may be sent to the chairmen of the committees in charge of the successive issues or to Dr. Forrest E. Long.

If the reader is not now a subscriber he will, we hope, sign the card enclosed in this issue and mail it. If he is a subscriber, will he not call the magazine to the attention of his associates or send to the managing editor the names of those whom he thinks may be interested. The editors are giving as generously as possible of their time and energy to the publication of the magazine because they believe that there is need for it. Will you please do your part?

The advisement and guidance aspects of secondary education are hampered by certain habits of mind which have rooted themselves in guidance specialists, in subject teachers, and in administrators. These are, first, the concept of guidance as a special

function of the school, and, second, the tacit acceptance of subject mastery as the normal and fundamental work of the school.

The former concept results in the superimposition of technics and specialized services to the subordination or exclusion of normal pupil-teacher advisement. The latter concept thwarts and distorts the efforts of the dean or counselor; it forces him to be too largely a "tail-twisting" officer who deals with pupils who are said to be "problem cases" because they are failing algebra or "cutting" classes.

The origin of the guidance movement is so recent—it is scarcely more than two decades old—that it is not strange that the personnel function remains earth bound by the traditional subject-completion conception of secondary education. Guidance gained its footing in public schools only as an appendage, a special service for pupils who were about to leave school for work. It involved placement and follow-up for those who dropped out, and it was applied in the final years of the elementary-school course where pupils were about to choose curricula or special types of schools.

Gradually, guidance has added to its program. Vocational guidance has expanded into educational guidance, health guidance, social guidance, and moral guidance. A new term, "personnel," has been introduced to apply to these functions and to the offi-

cers charged with responsibility for them. Personnel administration involves the services of medical inspectors and nurses, of psychiatrists, clinics, visiting teachers, placement officers, and coöordinators, of deans, counselors, and homeroom teachers, and even of some phases of the curriculum itself. Records, personnel ratings, interviews with pupils and with teachers and parents, and special reports are followed by more interviews.

In some schools the personnel officer attempts to deal with all pupils whose adjustments are unsatisfactory. Thus the classroom teacher may be freed to drill the pupils endlessly on irregular verbs and history dates.

ADVISEMENT AND GUIDANCE ARE ASPECTS OF ALL EDUCATIVE PRACTICES

If only we can free ourselves from the scholastic stereotype sufficiently to get a clear conception of the spirit and process of the new education, we may come to realize that advisement and guidance are expressions of an emerging curriculum. For, both in spirit and in practice, this curriculum-emergent is most radical.

It is premised on the following startlingly simple but revolutionary postulates:

1. Education consists in helping pupils to set up objectives which are for them dynamic, reasonable, and worth while, and in helping them, in so far as possible, to attain these objectives.

2. The major fields in which such advisement is necessary are: health, vocation, avocation, education, and wholesome human relationships.

3. The idea of advisement is inherent in all efforts to educate.

4. The kind and amount of advisement needed varies greatly with different children and in different situations and at different times.

5. The need for advisement is peculiarly acute in our schools today because of:

- a) The increased complexity of social organization;
- b) The rapidity of change in social organization; and
- c) The changing character of sanctions as determined by: (a) the home, (b) the community, (c) the church, (d) the industrial situation, (e) the economic situations, and (f) the demands of life in a democracy.

These postulates are so reasonable that one scarcely realizes how revolutionary must be the process of harmonizing school practices with them. Only when the conventional conception is stated bluntly is one likely to get the significance of the startling changes which confront the schools. Conventionally, education is thought of as subject getting; success, as it is indicated by promotion and diplomas, is based on subject learnings. In conventional practice the curriculum is the end of education, not a means of attaining objectives. We cannot do the educational job by subject teaching. If it is to be done, a new instrument must be utilized. The most direct attack on the problem of promoting immediate and ultimate goals of education is through the stimulation of the pupils to set up objectives which are for them dynamic, reasonable, and worth while.

If pupils are to be so stimulated, if this statement of the function of the school is to be more than a pious aspiration, then every teacher must become an adviser. The personnel function must no longer be relegated to counselors, deans, placement officers, and visiting teachers. *For it is inherent in all efforts to educate.*

The burden and opportunity for guidance falls primarily on the classroom and homeroom teachers. Guidance and advisement are subtle and personal. The teacher has a considerable share in very many, perhaps most, of the school learning situations of the child. The teacher needs only to seize

EDITORIAL

upon the opportunities already furnished through her intimate contacts with pupils' activities, moods, and desires, to use purposefully the tools which are now furnished or which may be furnished by the school. "The essential principle of education," said Pestalozzi, "is not teaching; it is love."

The concepts of advisement and guidance as integral parts of education are largely the result of, and still more the justification for, the democratic tendencies in educational administration. As administrative officers become more keenly aware of their major responsibilities to provide for and to promote advisement and guidance activities, they are compelled to depend upon their teachers for the exercise of initiative, discrimination, and self-reliance.

Moreover, this new concept of advisement and guidance, itself an expression of the curriculum-emergent, gives orientation to the evolving curriculum. For the proper adaptation of both subject matter and methods to the peculiar needs of individual pupils is best promoted through the advisory activities of teachers who are working in a democratically organized school system.

The rôle of the teacher thus changes from that of arbiter, tester, and marker to that of stimulator and rewarder. The development of children's habits continues to be his immediate occupation. But the habits vary.

The habits promoted in the curriculum-emergent are not limited to the insertion of commas, the correct use of pronouns, the processes involved in finding the square root, or of standing to recite. They are rather emotionally satisfying personality traits; they underlie desires and aspirations. The habit of tolerance, the habit of detachment in argument, the habit of effective study, the habit of suspension of judgment, the habit of coöperation, the habit of contributing to social enterprises, the habit of

self-reliance—such habits are essential to the integrated social self of the pupil. And such habits it is feasible for teachers to promote in the creatively controlled school.

The implications which are fundamental to such habituations, however, require that pupils seek earnestly to attain objectives which are for them dynamic, reasonable, and worth while. Hence, the teacher as an adviser is little concerned with what pupils know about the subject matter presented or what standards of achievement they attain.

He has little fear that any one of them will not know enough and be able to do enough *if he cares, if he desires to discover and to control, if he finds the activities in which he engages satisfying, and if he feels himself to be adequate to achieve and to contribute to the undertakings in which he and his fellows engage.*

In Tildsley's study of the teaching in the New York City high schools,¹ it was not the subject teachers who were primarily interested in subject standards who were appreciated by pupils or principals. Rather were those teachers recognized as superior who by their personal warmth and friendliness had encouraged and stimulated youths to seek new activities and to gain insight into the meanings of life.

Indeed, the five traits which received recognition in the Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study² are those which characterize the teacher as an adequate guide, philosopher, and friend of youth rather than those which typify the subject-mastery zealots. The five traits given highest rating are as follows: breadth of interest, considerateness, enthusiasm, magnetism, self-control.

THE ADVISER AND THE EMERGING PUPIL

PERSONALITIES

Teachers who are adequate advisers know that no youth can be normal who feels

¹ John L. Tildsley, "Better Teaching in the High Schools of New York City," *Bulletin of High Points on the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, IX, 8, October, 1927.

² W. W. Charters and Douglas Waples, *The Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929), p. 18, pp. 518 ff.

himself to be a failure, and their practices conform to the knowledge. They know that a task, a plan, and freedom are so important to every human being that without them "a person cannot be quite sound mentally," and with them "apart from accident, infection, or heredity, one can have no serious mental disorder."⁸ And they know that no amount of bullying and hard-boiled superimposition can make youths accept arbitrary assignments as tasks which involve planning and freedom.

Teachers as they grow in watchfulness for advisement opportunities and in their ability to serve youth come to respect the unique personality of each pupil, to encourage him to give expression to his ego impulse, and to resolve his fears and inferiority feelings in successful performances. They gain an insight into the significance of Morgan's definition of the will—the expectation of success. And they so diversify the kinds of approvable activities in which each may engage that the genius of each one finds expression, and an atmosphere of universal victory pervades his homeroom and his classroom.

The teacher as an adviser bursts the confines of his schoolroom. He increasingly realizes that the pupil's out-of-school life is a more significant control of behavior and attitudes and aspirations than the school can very often be. He is therefore alert to exploit every interest in music and literature and drama and science and art and athletics and civic activities and nature and in the occupations of parents and neighbors. He seeks to build where activity already exists.

For life is like a bicycle—it is in a state of stable equilibrium only when it is moving forward. The moment we inhibit or thwart life's activities and aspirations they fail and life becomes futile. But guidance in the active living of life is essential and natural. It gives direction through pro-

⁸ W. M. Burnham, *The Normal Mind* (New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1924), pp. 213-214.

moting a discrimination of objectives and satisfactions. And the teacher as an adviser, because of the frequency and the potential intimacy of his contacts with youth, is frequently the only member of the school's staff who can exert such potent influence.

In our better junior and senior high schools there are many teachers of English and shop and art and civics and music and athletics and dramatics who are effective advisers; who are, indeed, both partners in sponsoring each performance and the gallery in whose presence pupils play their parts while in school and, to a degree, while away from school. Occasionally, such advisers are found among teachers of history, science, the foreign languages, and mathematics, though they have to overcome the curriculum stereotypes which have incrusted their subjects.

As homeroom sponsors, however, all teachers may take full advantage of the opportunities for coöperative effort. To present an assembly, to work out a plan for the care of the locker room, to raise money for a school project—here are challenges to the teacher as an adviser. For in such projects life is set in motion. And in such projects there is some rôle, prominent or obscure, which every child may play successfully if he be adequately advised. And in such projects, there may develop, under the direction of the capable teacher guide, the practices of coöperating, of competing, of winning gracefully, of meeting defeat bravely, and of evaluation and compromise. In such projects, indeed, the active virtues of originality, initiative, and self-reliance develop because they are needed and because they assure satisfaction.

THE SPECIALIST AND THE ADVISEMENT PROGRAM

Does this conception of the personnel function seem to leave the specialist out of account entirely? It is not so intended. For

EDITORIAL

the specialist will be needed in secondary education whenever functions are diversified and problems are difficult. Only a fool could assume that, with all of the distortions of human life which characterize our industrial civilization, acute problems will not frequently arise.

The specialist must aid teachers to deal with such problems. He must himself personally deal with each difficult adjustment case. But even more will the specialist's success be measured by the extent to which he can stimulate and direct the advisory activities of teachers. Because of his specialized knowledge in certain fields he may advise both teachers and pupils.

Just as the doctor may prescribe spinach for the child's diet and then expect the mother to persuade the child to eat it, so the specialist may suggest treatments for the maladjusted child and expect the teachers to see to it that the suggestions are carried out. Even so, the teacher, like the mother referred to, has no insignificant task in executing the specialist's program. Unless the teacher himself understands precisely what is needed and how the desired results can be successfully attained, the process of advisement through specialists is futile.

Let us say again—advisement depends upon so personal and subtle a relationship that the homeroom and classroom teacher must be conceived to be the key figure. Any program which encourages the teacher to give exclusive, or even major attention to the teaching of subject mastery is vicious and certain to fail. Only as the teacher himself becomes the conscious and resourceful guide, philosopher, and friend of his pupils, can he function educationally. And only as his superior administrative officers recognize that these are his primary educational functions—and select him and promote him for adequacy in performing them—can the school become an instrument wor-

thy of the community's respect and continued support.

P. W. L. C.

THE BLIND MEN AND THE ELEPHANT

Probably no error is more human or more common than that of mistaking the part for the whole. This type of mistake is forcefully illustrated by the poem by John Godfrey Saxe, entitled "The Blind Men and the Elephant," upon which members of the last generation were brought up. Extended inquiry has demonstrated the fact that the poem is almost unknown to many of the present generation, and for that reason it is quoted below as an introduction to this editorial:

It was six men of Indostan
To learning much inclined,
Who went to see the Elephant
(Though all of them were blind),
That each by observation
Might satisfy his mind.

The *First* approached the Elephant,
And happening to fall
Against his broad and sturdy side,
At once began to bawl:
"God bless me! but the Elephant
Is very like a wall!"

The *Second*, feeling of the tusk,
Cried, "Ho! what have we here
So very round and smooth and sharp?
To me 'tis mighty clear
This wonder of an Elephant
Is very like a spear!"

The *Third* approached the animal,
And happening to take
The squirming trunk within his hands,
Thus boldly up and spake:
"I see," quoth he "the Elephant
Is very like a snake!"

The *Fourth* reached out an eager hand,
And felt about the knee.
"What most this wondrous beast is like
Is mighty plain," quoth he;
"Tis clear enough the Elephant
Is very like a tree!"

The *Fifth* who chanced to touch the ear,
Said: "E'en the blindest man
Can tell what this resembles most;
Deny the fact who can,
This marvel of an Elephant
Is very like a fan!"

The Sixth no sooner had begun
About the beast to grope,
Than, seizing on the swinging tail
That fell within his scope,
"I see," quoth he, "the Elephant
Is very like a rope!"

And so these men of Indostan
Disputed loud and long,
Each in his own opinion
Exceeding stiff and strong,
Though each was partly in the right,
And all were in the wrong!

MORAL

So oft in theologic wars,
The disputants, I ween,
Rail on in utter ignorance
Of what each other mean,
And prate about an Elephant
Not one of them has seen!

The reader is not expected to carry the parallel to an extreme by comparing guidance in a public-school system to an elephant—and certainly not a white elephant. A guidance organization, on the contrary, is usually found to be a most essential part of the organization of the school. In the variety of aspects and functions, however, the parallel holds true and undoubtedly there are many educators and people in the community who see a part of the work of the guidance organization and mistake it for the whole. To the uninitiated, guidance almost invariably is restricted to vocational guidance, and vocational guidance is restricted to the act of initial placement. One who sees only the act of initial placement without all that has gone before and all that is sure to follow, is frequently guilty not only of mistaking the part for the whole, but also of mistaking an incident for an entire process covering many years and many phases.

Another casual observer—perhaps a news reporter—enters the guidance department intent upon discovering in a half-hour interview all about the work. His idea is that he can make a picture of a counselor in conversation with a pupil and then give the public a bird's eye view of what it is all about. To such a one, guidance consists

of a trained person telling some one else what to do. "The elephant is very like a spear."

A deeper student of the guidance process realizes that guidance must be self-guidance and that in order to be able to guide themselves, pupils must have a background of information and must be trained in making decisions. Such a student emphasizes the need of the study of occupations and of the group guidance of pupils in general conferences. But in his enthusiasm for his point of view he is inclined to overlook the fact that there are other equally important aspects of guidance. The school principal naturally has in mind the complexities of the curriculum; the wide variation in individual interests, ambitions, and prospects. To him curriculum guidance or educational guidance is the all-important phase and in his zeal for this particular feature of the work he is inclined to think that the elephant is "very like a wall."

And then comes the specialist in educational measurements and in aptitude tests and in personnel research, through which he attempts a scientific study of the factors conditioning success. He is inclined to emphasize the need of pupil adjustment in such a way as to ensure a reasonable measure of success and happiness for each individual. He is inclined to look upon educational guidance as the work of the classroom or home and teacher, upon occupational information as highly interesting but impractical, and upon counseling as influenced too much by individual opinion.

On the other hand, the counselor suspects him of applying mathematical formulae without human understanding, and the advocate of the study of occupations or of educational guidance is inclined to look upon the personnel research specialist as one who savors of army methods and of making decisions without taking into account the desires of the individual.

EDITORIAL

Thus to one superintendent of schools guidance means one thing and to another, another. It is certainly extremely difficult in so new a field of service to enable each superintendent and principal to see the entire task and the relation of each part to the whole. However, unless such an understanding of the entire field is assured there is a great danger that the functions may be separated in such a way as to interfere seriously with their efficiency. It is possible that the elephant might get along without an ear, a tusk, or a tail, provided that legs and trunk were not severed from the body; and the normal growth of the department and its normal function must depend upon an organization which combines all of the functions coördinated into a healthy organism.

In order that the various functions of a guidance organization may be better understood, a series of reports were published last year by the National Vocational Guidance Association in the *Vocational Guidance Magazine*. That on the functions and organization of guidance in the junior high school appeared in the December issue, while the February issue contained the reports on guidance in the elementary schools, in the evening schools, in the continuation schools, in vocational schools, and in adult education. In this issue of the *CLEARING HOUSE*, and by agreement also in the current issue of *Vocational Guidance Magazine*, there appears a report on the functions and organization of guidance in the senior high school.

The purpose of all of these reports has been to emphasize the threefold nature of the guidance functions.

(1) *Personnel records and research*, or the study of the individual in relationship to his school environment in order that more may be known concerning the factors conditioning success and failure in school. Such studies included data obtained from questionnaires, from educational tests, psy-

chological tests, tests of special abilities, records of school achievement, health records, and any other reliable sources available. Emphasis should be placed, however, not only upon the reliability of the records and the keeping of the records, but most of all, upon the study and use of the records. The chief difficulty with records is not that they are unreliable, but that they are seldom studied or used in such a way as to serve the individuals whom they represent. The purpose of a guidance organization in a school system is to provide individuals whose duty it is to study the problems of individual differences and needs and to make use of this study in practical problems of pupil adjustment. While it is true that many such records may be kept by clerks or that clerks may assist advisers in keeping records, it seems a reasonable requirement that advisers should be chosen from those who look upon such records as opportunities to study and understand children rather than as wearisome clerical detail.

(2) *Counseling or Individual Interviews with Children*. In the secondary schools especially, where provision is made for individual differences, and where children are continually leaving school to enter employment, it is reasonable and necessary that there should be at least once a year an individual interview of each pupil with his adviser or some person responsible for his school adjustment. A busy principal can interview only serious and urgent problem cases. It should not be necessary, however, for a child to become a problem case by getting into trouble or failing in order that he may receive individual attention. Some of the problems requiring individual counseling are: entering or leaving school, choice of elective subjects, problems of discipline or attendance, serious cases of failure or maladjustment, failure to participate in school activities, or "unbalanced educational diet" resulting from too ambitious a

program of activities, problems of social maladjustment.

(3) *Orientation, or group guidance.* The purpose of such work is definitely the training of pupils to understand and appreciate problems in their daily lives concerning personal and social relationships, educational and occupational choices, the arousing of interests in occupational information, instruction in how to study, and the study of the educational opportunities which the community affords both for further general education and for vocational education.

All three of these functions in so far as possible should be the task of each adviser for a definite group of pupils. Without adequate personnel records and research the adviser is handicapped in dealing with problems involved in the individual interview. Without a group guidance program she must give the same advice repeatedly to different individuals and has no means of anticipating problems before they arise. Through the individual interviews the adviser may become acquainted with the problems which are common to most students. With these in mind she can plan her group

guidance program in such a way as to meet and anticipate many of the problems which must otherwise be dealt with in the individual interviews—perhaps after some unfortunate incident has occurred which has created a problem. These three types of functions together are somewhat like the three legs of a stool without any one of which stability can not be assured.

There is a strong tendency for the principal or superintendent who does not see the entire task as a whole to decree that records should be kept by a clerk, that occupations and educational guidance should be taught by the subject teacher or homeroom teacher, and that individual interviews are the duty of the dean, or the assistant principal, or the adviser. Such a conception of guidance functions would seem to indicate that one who holds it is so close to the elephant that he sees only the ear, the tusk, or the tail. He should get far enough away so that the entire "wondrous beast" can come within the focus of his comprehension at the same time.

Above all, he should avoid the common error of mistaking a part for the whole.

BOOSTERS' CLUB

A friend of the CLEARING HOUSE sends in the following suggestion which we like:

It takes two kinds of service to keep the CLEARING HOUSE above water. Many editors are coöperating to make it the best journal in the field of junior- and senior-high-school education; and you carry their names in each issue. But you need subscribers also! Many of our friends are quietly soliciting subscriptions which will assure the continuance of the publication. Why don't you organize a *Boosters' Club* for those who send in five or more subscriptions?

We think this is a good idea and from

time to time we shall publish the names of new members of our *Boosters' Club*. The first one to send in five or more subscriptions after we had decided to organize the club was Dean Willis L. Uhl, School of Education, University of Washington, who becomes the charter member.

Send in your five subscriptions and your certificate of membership in the *Boosters' Club* will be a bound volume of the CLEARING HOUSE for your personal or school library.

F. E. L.

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GUIDANCE IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

RICHARD D. ALLEN

EDITOR'S NOTE: Probably no one in America has done more than the author of the present article to convince the average patron of the schools that guidance is a paying investment. He has served as president of the National Vocational Guidance Association and this number of the CLEARING HOUSE is a testimonial to his understanding of the status of guidance in American schools. Dr. Allen is assistant superintendent of schools at Providence, Rhode Island.

F. E. L.

A dozen years ago schoolmen would have thought the idea fantastic if some one had suggested that educational and vocational guidance should be provided at public expense for *every child in the public schools*. Such an idea would have been considered about as remotely probable as that a lone aviator should cross the Atlantic, or that the moving pictures could be made to talk and sing. Today all of these improbabilities have become established facts. Air transportation, talking pictures, and human engineering may still require considerable improvement, but no one laughs at them today. Thomas A. Edison has been quoted as saying that "problems in human engineering will receive during the coming years the same genius and attention which the nineteenth century gave to the more material forms of engineering. We have laid the foundations for industrial prosperity. Now we want to assure the *happiness* and *growth* of the workers through *vocational education* and *vocational guidance* and wisely managed employment department. A great field for industrial experimentation and statesmanship is opening up."

No one will accuse Mr. Edison of being an impractical dreamer. In fact similar statements have been made by many leading statesmen, employers, labor leaders, and educators. Many large industrial firms now have personnel departments the purpose of which is to study the factors that condition the success of the worker in his work in order that failure, labor turnover, sickness, and accidents may be prevented, and that the human resources of intelligence, special abilities, interest, personality, and initiative

may be utilized to the greatest possible extent. This is good business both for the employer and for the worker.

Employers are not alone in their interest in the field of human engineering. Educators generally from the elementary schools to the college and the graduate schools have become interested in the problems of individual differences. Within the past decade, literally thousands of books have been written upon such subjects as educational measurements, psychological tests, tests of special abilities, the revision of the school curriculum to meet the individual differences of pupils, methods of instruction adapted to individual differences, problems of pupil adjustment, educational and vocational guidance, mental hygiene, occupational therapy, the vocational rehabilitation of soldiers and civilians who have been physically or mentally handicapped, and salvaging old age. The total contribution of the past decade to the literature of human engineering has been tremendous. The diversity of titles has made many libraries overlook the fact that this entire collection is really a library on the subject of human engineering. Moreover, many colleges and universities now offer graduate courses in educational and vocational guidance, mental hygiene, the measurement of individual differences, the psychology of vocational adjustment, personnel management, and many other branches. All of these subjects are closely related to the guidance field. And all this progress has been made in a little more than a decade.

Recent developments in the organization and administration of the public schools

emphasize the need of a guidance service. Modern schools have become so highly specialized that there is serious danger of losing the individual in a maze of teachers, subjects, activities, and program machinery.

Few parents realize that in the highly departmentalized senior and junior high schools, platoon schools, and semidepartmentalized elementary schools, a pupil will have from 71 to 230 different persons each of whom performs some specialized function as teacher, supervisor, or principal. Each person sees only a *part* of the child, sees him only for a *short* time, and no one can be held *definitely responsible* for the finished product. It is truly fortunate that children are harder to spoil than manufactured articles. To meet this situation, organized guidance must be developed as the articulating element in the school system; otherwise the school may increasingly become a factory for mass production.

A brief mention of some of the principal guidance functions in the various school units may emphasize the scope of the task.

In very many of our city school systems more than one fourth of the pupils of the elementary schools are seriously retarded. Eighty per cent of the problems of truancy and juvenile delinquency come from this retarded group. There is good evidence that the educationally maladjusted child becomes the socially maladjusted adult. This group deserves a careful scientific study in order that the educational processing of our human material may be improved, and crime and delinquency prevented.

Junior high schools have their origin in the need for an earlier and more practical recognition of individual differences. The new curriculum aims at the broadening of interests and the discovery and development of special abilities. But where does all this lead? Unless pupils are assisted in making wise choices of elective subjects in the senior high school so that provision is made

for the continuous development of interests and abilities when they have been discovered, much of the work of the junior high school will be rendered meaningless and futile.

The work of the guidance department in a senior or junior high school is usually grouped under three main divisions. The first is that of personnel records and research, or the recording of significant facts about each pupil and the study of the factors conditioning success and failure. Such facts include the results of questionnaires, school records, results of objective measurements of intelligence and achievement, work records, and other data. The second is individual counseling, or individual interviews with pupils to assist them in problems of choices of studies, leaving school, failure, etc. Without adequate personnel records such interviews are of doubtful value. With dependable records much can be done to cut the educational garment to fit the child and to help him to select the type of training and the kind of work which offers the greatest probability of success, not only financially, but also in terms of future growth.

The third division of guidance in the public schools has been called orientation or group guidance. Individual instruction and individual interviews, either with a physician or with a specialized counselor, are expensive. Furthermore it is an *additional expense*, charged to overhead. Such costs are looked upon with suspicion by school committees. When problems of guidance can be dealt with in groups, it is far more economical and the expense is charged to *instruction* rather than to overhead. In secondary schools, the course in orientation or group guidance includes problems of personal and social relations, information about courses of study and the educational opportunities of the city, and methods of studying occupations in order to learn about occupational problems and opportunities. In

GUIDANCE IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

the Providence schools these problems are taught by the *class adviser* to the same pupils each week throughout the entire course so that pupils may become interested in and alert to such problems before they are actually confronted with the necessity of an immediate choice.

There are also other guidance problems. There is the problem of closing the gap between the grammar school and the high school, or between the junior and the senior high schools; there is the still greater gap between school and employment; and the need for assistance in planning for further general and vocational education after leaving the regular day schools. In our senior high schools many bright, ambitious, and capable children are forced to give up their right to an education freely provided by the city and State because of economic necessity. The raising and administration of high-school scholarship funds is a function of the guidance department in many public-school systems. Such funds were unknown a decade ago.

✓ The guidance movement in the public schools is the educational counterpart of the personnel management movement in employment. Both aim at a more intelligent adjustment of the worker in his work. In the modern school the child is in reality a worker. Although much is done to make school work attractive and enjoyable, many a high-school pupil works as hard and as long as does his father at the office or his mother at home. School has its personnel problems as well as employment, problems of failure, work that is not suited to the individual, undeveloped or unused abilities, pupil turnover, loss of morals, and so on.

Every modern, scientifically managed industrial plan provides for the study of its markets so that information may be available concerning the destination of its product, the uses that are made of it, and the changing demands of purchasers. In the same way it is important that every modern

school plant should provide for the study of its market—should know what becomes of its product, what occupations pupils enter, and what are the changes in the demands of these occupations for general education and for special training. A decade ago no school system in the country could give any accurate information concerning such matters. Today several city school systems have provided for the continuous study of these changing conditions. In the schools of Providence, graduates of all of the senior high schools are followed up at the end of *one-, three-, and five-year* periods by the *adviser of each class* and the results are compiled and published by the supervisor of placement in the central office. From these follow-up studies many facts are learned that greatly aid the work of curriculum revision in the schools and that provide more definite information for the guidance and placement of future classes.

✓ Many school systems now have guidance and placement offices which help to bridge the gap between school and employment. A follow-up study of what happens to any class will indicate certain trends which determine the educational and occupational placement of more than half of the next succeeding class. The study of successive classes as they leave school furnishes the basis for an effective placement service. Beginning with the trails that have already been worn from school to employment by many children, new trails can be blazed, new opportunities discovered, and the results used for the guidance of future classes.

America provides equality of opportunity for all her children through the public schools. People expect much of the school system. It is very touching to see the faith that foreign parents often have in the schools. They expect that by some subtle process the school will make possible for their children all of the advantages which

they have been denied, such as a better social position; better appearance, manners, social graces; social recognition; more leisure time; and last and most important of all, a better job—steadier work, better pay, better conditions of work, and a chance to get ahead. This is a very large order. The schools cannot raise every child to a professional status, but much can be done to help each individual to make the most of his special abilities and to develop in him those qualities which make for success

in the occupational fields where his interests and abilities lie.

This is the field of educational and vocational guidance in the public schools. It is a part of the larger field of human engineering of which much is to be expected in the future. I believe with Edison that its contribution to human health and happiness in the years to come will be very great indeed. It means more intelligent and connected educational planning, better articulation, and more attention to individual differences.

GUIDANCE PROGRAM OF A RURAL HIGH SCHOOL IN CALIFORNIA

WILLIAM MARTIN PROCTOR

EDITOR'S NOTE: Dr. Proctor, professor of education, Stanford University, needs no introduction to CLEARING HOUSE readers. He will be remembered as a contributor to Volume IV and Chairman of the Records and Reports number.

F. E. L.

There is a tendency on the part of professional workers in the field of guidance to assume that schools which do not have full-time or part-time counselors cannot be said to have a satisfactory guidance program. While it may be conceded that specially trained workers are essential to the fullest development of a guidance program, it is well to bear in mind that many rural high schools would never have a guidance program at all if they had to wait until they could employ full-time or even part-time counselors to carry it out.

One of the best examples of the last mentioned type of school that has recently come to the attention of the writer is that of the Oakdale Union High School, of Oakdale, California, of which Mr. J. O. Gossett is principal. This school is located in Stanislaus County, about fifteen miles from the City of Modesto. It is made up of nineteen elementary districts, has an enrollment of four hundred fifty students, and transports some of its students for more than twenty miles each way.

The interest of the principal of this school in educational and vocational guidance is due in part to the fact that he is chairman of the committee on guidance for the rural-

high-school section of the State high-school principal's association. He has therefore been a "preacher" of guidance to his colleagues in the rural high schools. But he has been more than a preacher—he has been an ardent "practicer" of guidance principles in his own school. Following are some of the guidance features which he has introduced and is successfully carrying out at the Oakdale Union High School.

Visiting Day: Sometime during the second semester each year all of the eighth-grade students who are to graduate in June are invited to the high school, bus transportation being provided, and for a day they become the guests of the Union High School. They are shown through the building, given booklets describing the courses of study, and the work of the different departments is explained to them. They are entertained at dinner by the high-school student body officers and in every way made to feel that the high school is interested in them.

Eighth graders' records gathered. The visit of the eighth graders to the high school is followed by a visit of the high-school principal to each elementary school while it is in session. From the teacher of the

GUIDANCE PROGRAM OF A RURAL HIGH SCHOOL

one-room rural school or the principal of the consolidated school he secures the individual record of each eighth-grade pupil who is to graduate in June. This record is recorded on the following form:

RECOMMENDATION CARD FOR EIGHTH-GRADE CONFIDENTIAL REPORT

Name of pupil..... Date of birth.....
Pupil's P. O. address..... Stanislaus County

Name of teacher.....
This pupil is recommended to the Stanislaus County Board of Education as being capable of doing good high school work.

Name of high school pupil expects to attend.
Teacher will please fill out this confidential report for each pupil recommended for a diploma and file the same with the County Superintendent, who will turn them over to their respective high school principals.

1. Attitude towards work
2. Attitude of parent towards school
3. Pupil's attitude towards responsibility and confidence.....
4. Habits of pupil
5. Possible future vocation
6. Underline special characteristics of pupil: Nervous, Timid, Diffident, Over-confident, Under-confident, Egotistical, Stubborn, Responds to praise.
7. Health
8. Home conditions
9. Favorite activities
10. Special talents
11. Mark the following subjects—G. (good), F. (fair), W. (weak).
Civics (), Arithmetic (), History (), Composition (), Grammar (), Reading (), Writing (), Spelling (), Geography ().
12. General remarks by the teacher.....

In addition to the above confidential report to the county superintendent, which is turned over to the principal of the high school to which the eighth-grade graduate indicates his intention of going, Mr. Gossett secures the complete scholastic record of each prospective student, as well as the results of any tests—mental or achievement, which the elementary school may have.

Personal visits to homes. During the month just before the opening of the high school in September, the principal and the person whom he has appointed to be adviser to the incoming freshman class, visit the home of every prospective student. Notice of these proposed visits is sent out

beforehand and the parents are requested to be ready to talk over their son's or daughter's program of studies with the principal and the class adviser when they arrive on a given date. This feature of the guidance program has turned out to be the most important of all. Not only do the principal and the class adviser become personally acquainted with the students and their parents, but they come to have an understanding of the home background, social environment, other phases of the student's home life, which is invaluable in helping the student to plan his first year in high school.

Early registration. All members of the freshman class are required to register on the Friday and Saturday preceding the first Monday of the regular school year. They come to the high school on those days and are registered by the principal and the class adviser, who, as previously stated, accompanied the principal on his visits to their homes during the previous month. Tentative programs have been made out by the students in conference with their parents and these are submitted for final approval. On Saturday, also, as many of the elementary principals and one-room rural elementary school teachers as can possibly be on hand are invited to come and assist in the registering of their former pupils. This gives the principal and the class adviser an additional check on the student's program, and also serves to make the rural teachers feel their responsibility in the preparation of their students for the high school.

Ability grouping. Sectioning according to ability is carried out in English for all four years of the high-school course, and in mathematics for algebra and plane geometry. Placement tests in English, as well as intelligence tests, achievement tests, and teacher judgments are employed in the making up of ability groups.

Class advisers. Each class has an adviser, who starts with the class as freshmen, accompanying the principal on his home visitation tour, and who stays with them through their four years in high school. These advisers are allowed a certain amount of time from their regular teaching load, but receive no extra compensation. They are usually scheduled also for one study period each school day with their class group. All term marks, at the end of each six-week term, are made out in triplicate, and one set for each student is sent to his or her class adviser, who thus knows the status of each of her protégés at each stage of school progress. The principal spends some time with each class adviser each week, and in this way all necessary adjustments are quickly made.

Course in vocational information. This course is worked out as a six-week unit in the regular civics course for seniors and is thus taken by all members of the senior class. A full list of appropriate supplementary material is on hand in the library, and assembly talks by representatives of various vocations are sponsored by the class.

Social, moral, and health guidance. These aspects of a complete guidance program are handled by the two teachers in charge of physical education for men and women

respectively. First aid, and care of children, as well as home nursing are taught by the county school nurse.

The program of studies. The district has a large tax valuation and is able to afford a sufficient staff to provide a rich program of studies. In addition to the usual academic courses the school has a special music course with a separate building of its own—also automobile, wood-working, and other shops, an agricultural course adapted to the needs of its constituents, and excellent home-economics and household arts courses.

The principal is able to spend the time he does in the supervision of his guidance and adjustment program because the High School Board provides him with efficient clerical help which takes care of all the details of attendance, handling of supplies, and the ordinary routine of the principal's office. He has, thus, at least seventy-five per cent of his time free for the supervision of the instructional and the guidance aspects of his program. The result is a school where the holding power is unusual, where the percentage of failures has been reduced to a minimum, and where there is a fine spirit of coöperation between faculty and principal, as well as between students and faculty.

UNFINISHED BUSINESS OR CLOSING THE GAP BETWEEN THE SCHOOL AND EMPLOYMENT

ROBERT HAPPOCK

EDITOR'S NOTE: The modern manufacturer maintains his sales agencies and service agencies. Without such departments the huge automobile factories would be unable to maintain their existence in the face of keen competition. They cannot afford to leave sales service to chance or to the independent dealer. Although schools are not forced to do so by competition, a faithful and complete service to the public requires that the public schools bridge the gap between school and employment by an effective guidance-placement service.

The author of the present article is field secretary of the National Vocational Guidance Association.

"We should be open to the charge of being illogical and impractical if, after having instituted the means of guidance thus far listed, we should fail to provide for placement in occupations and for employ-

ment supervision after placement."—Koos.

"One of the most important parts of the guidance program is placement; another is the follow-up work."—Douglass.

Of what value is the best program of

UNFINISHED BUSINESS OR CLOSING THE GAP

vocational guidance and vocational education if the graduating student cannot find employment in the vocation which he has chosen and for which he has been prepared? For years teachers have been trained in any subject they chose. The wisdom of their choice has not been questioned. But today a surplus exists in certain fields, hundreds of graduates of normal schools and teachers colleges cannot find positions, and Congress must appropriate \$200,000 to find out what is the matter.

The necessity of bridging the gap between elementary and secondary education has been properly emphasized. The whole junior-high-school movement represents an attempt to meet this need. How much greater is the need for bridging the gap between education and employment. One method of meeting this need is the placement office, organized under the vocational guidance department in the public schools. Such an office has several functions.

1. *To help graduates get jobs.* The average adolescent knows little about *how* to apply for a job, and still less about *where* to apply. Without sympathetic and intelligent help at this critical period he is likely to become discouraged after a few futile attempts to secure work in the occupation of his choice, and to take the first job that he finds. Thus often is an expensive education thrown away. And the loss is borne not only by the student but also by the community which paid for his education. It is the business of the placement office to know where jobs may be found, to send the graduate to such places, and to help him secure employment in the field of his choice; when that is impossible, to find the next best temporary position; and then to *continue the search* until the graduate is properly placed.

2. *To provide the vocational counselors with current information about occupations.* Lack of knowledge regarding the relative demand for workers in various occupations

results inevitably in an oversupply of workers for some occupations and a dearth of workers in others. Knowledge of average demand throughout the country is insufficient, for few cities are average. And at least half of the graduates will stay in the local environment for the first ten years.

Occupational conditions, requirements, and opportunities are changing daily. The busy counselor in school can hardly keep pace with them. But the placement office can—and does. Here is a natural source of up-to-date vocational information, which may be sent back to the vocational counselors in weekly bulletins.

3. *To make follow-up studies.* These are usually made at the end of one, three, and five years. Not infrequently they have revealed significant facts. For example, that ten per cent of the graduates of a commercial high school go to college, that forty per cent of the technical high-school graduates are employed in clerical work, that thirty per cent of those trained for a given occupation are not employed in it.

4. *To help the young worker make progress in his job.* The first few months of employment require many adjustments of the young worker. His environment is strangely different from that of the classroom. It is neither unusual nor unnatural for him to become discouraged, and even in some cases to get into trouble. The advisers of the placement office have repeatedly demonstrated their ability to serve as wise and effective counselors at such a time. Combining as they do a knowledge of the employer and his policies with an appreciation of the young person and his ambitions, they are the natural persons to fill such a need.

5. *To effect replacement* when necessary. The best vocational counselor in the world cannot prevent some students from choosing occupations for which they are obviously not fitted. It is only after they have tried and failed that some people can be

convinced of their weaknesses. Then comes a crucial point where the whole guidance process may have to be repeated, and where no commercial agency or amateur adviser can approximate the help of an experienced placement officer working in coöperation with the vocational counselor of the school from which the individual came.

There are incidental values in the placement office, too. Many a boy on the verge

of leaving school has turned back to his studies after an interview with a wise placement officer. Others thrown out of work by depressions and changing technical processes have been brought back for further training. Any number have found here their inspiration to undertake evening school work. And part-time jobs plus scholarships have kept many a brilliant student in school when he would otherwise have had to leave.

MEASURING THE EFFECT OF GUIDANCE OF THE HOLDING POWER OF A SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

RICHARD D. ALLEN and CHARLES B. MCKAY

Frequently the reputation of a high school has been established largely upon the conspicuous successes of outstanding students. The number of college-entrance prizes, scholarships, and honors awards, or the prominent positions that has been attained by graduates have been proudly pointed out as a result of the type and quality of education provided by the school. Any school may rightly view with pride such achievements of its alumni, but the credit for them may not belong entirely to the school, and certainly there are other factors that must be considered in the evaluation of a school. It can readily be seen that any institution which can select its students from the best who graduate from the elementary schools should expect better than average results from its graduates regardless of the value of its own curriculum. If, in addition to such an advantage at the start, the school sets up a program which requires for success a high degree of academic ability, a willingness to work long hours, and the self-discipline of giving up social, recreational, and avocational interests to make room for academic study, the chances of success of its graduates would naturally be still higher. Nevertheless their success might be due to the *selective process*

that has been set up, rather than to the type or quality of the educational program. Such false standards for measuring the success of schools are now giving way to fairer and more practical measures.

One indication of the success of a senior high school is the measure of its *holding power*. Although holding power depends upon many separate factors, such as the economic status of the population, general economic conditions, and the like, one of the most important of these factors is the adaptation of the curriculum and organization of the school to meet individual needs, interests, and abilities. Most senior-high-school pupils can leave school if they wish to do so. If school life is not interesting, if teachers do not "sell" their subjects, if the school does not adapt itself to the interests, needs, and abilities of pupils, the enrollment of a class dwindles surprisingly before the time for graduation. In some high schools, only one in twenty of the pupils who enter actually remains to graduate. In the best schools in the best communities, a graduating class of from thirty to forty per cent of the number in the entering class is an excellent record. Such statistics, however, are often not reliable, since many new pupils enter the class by

MEASURING THE EFFECT OF GUIDANCE

transfer during the three- or four-year period, and consequently the actual per cent of those who enter and those who remain to graduate is seldom available.

THE COMMERCIAL HIGH SCHOOL

An investigation in the Providence Commercial High School of the class of January 1922 showed that only ten per cent of those who entered in 1918 had actually remained to graduate on time. So small a proportion was explained at the time by the obvious fact that many of those who entered had no intention of remaining to graduate. They were not preparing for college and, consequently, when a good position was available, they usually accepted it and left school. This seemed an inevitable conclusion, a situation that could not be helped. The principal might have comforted himself with the thought that many other schools had even worse records, or he might have relied upon the few bright stars that always prove to casual observers the quality of the school. But instead he strengthened the guidance facilities in the school in order to study and improve conditions.

During the past seven years conditions have changed: (1) the entering group is still more mixed, coming from a social and economic class that formerly did not aspire to a high-school education; it would thus seem natural to expect a still smaller percentage of graduates; (2) there has been throughout the country a growing appreciation of the value of education which has increased high-school attendance everywhere; (3) the times have been prosperous and fewer have been compelled to leave school; (4) a new building with modern equipment has replaced the old structure; (5) many changes in the curriculum have been made to meet individual needs; (6) a guidance organization has been developed to study individual needs and "to see that the educational garment is cut to fit the child."

HOLDING POWER

What have been the results of these changes upon the holding power of the school and upon the quality of the product? Concerning the quality of the product there is still very little objective data. School marks seem to be distributed about as impartially as in former years, and there are still the good, poor, and indifferent pupils. Follow-up studies indicate that the employments of the community absorb practically the entire graduating class without difficulty, in fact over half of them are placed or secure positions before graduation. Probably some day objective tests will be available so that reliable comparisons of both intelligence and achievement can be made between graduating classes over a period of years. Then we can know what is now merely conjecture. But the holding power of the school, on the other hand, can be determined with absolute accuracy. Take the Commercial High School class of 1929, for instance. One adviser has had complete charge of this group of pupils over their entire four-year course. All who entered or left during that time passed through his hands. All program adjustments, choices of elective subjects, investigations of causes for failure, and all school marks, psychological test results, and home contacts were his responsibility. Incidentally accurate pupil accounting has become possible through this arrangement.

In September 1925, 565 pupils entered Commercial High School. Of these, 216, or 38 per cent, graduated in June 1929, four years later. With them were 35 others who joined the class en route. The percentage of those who graduated on time compares very favorably with that of the 1922 class, in fact it shows an increase in holding power of 280 per cent in seven years.

Not all of those who left, however, should be counted as nongraduates. Forty

were transferred to other schools and eighty were transferred to other grades in the same school; that is, they lost a term or two, and many of them will be found in the succeeding graduating classes. In fact, forty-two of these pupils expect to graduate this year from the Commercial High School and if we add a reasonable percentage of those who were transferred to other schools, the proportion of ultimate graduates is well above 50 per cent of the entering class.

Besides the 565 who entered in 1925, additional registrations were as follows:

First year.....	22
Second year.....	41
Third year.....	23
Fourth year.....	1
 Total.....	87

Of these, 33 actually graduated on time, or about 38 per cent, the same proportion of those who entered by transfer as of those who were charter members. This fact is interesting because it is contrary to a general feeling among both advisers and subject teachers that pupils who transferred were for the most part failures in the schools from which they came and that they continued to fail after changing schools.

ELIMINATION RECORD

It is interesting to note the relation between grade and school elimination:

First year.....	116 or 21 per cent
Second year.....	80 or 14 per cent
Third year.....	54 or 10 per cent
Fourth year.....	19 or 3 per cent
 Transferred.....	269 or 48 per cent
 Total.....	80 or 14 per cent
 Total.....	62 per cent

The greatest elimination is to be expected in the first and second years when many become of working age. It might also be interesting to know what percentage of the pupils who began the second year left during the year and the same fact for other years. To do this the transfers as well as

the drop-outs would have to be arranged by years. Since of the eighty transfers, approximately thirty were made the first year, twenty-five the second, twenty the third, and five the fourth, we have the following table:

Of 525 who entered the 9th grade, 116 or 21 per cent left
Of 419 who entered the 10th grade, 80 or 20 per cent left
Of 314 who entered the 11th grade, 54 or 17 per cent left
Of 240 who entered the 12th grade, 19 or 8 per cent left

On this basis there is not much difference in holding power in the first three years, but in the last year there is more than twice as much holding power than in any other year. Fifty-six per cent of those who left did so between the ages of fifteen and sixteen. Advisers should keep this in mind in order to anticipate the problem of elimination as often as possible.

INTELLIGENCE AND ELIMINATION

There is a general impression that those who leave are the slow pupils, and that perhaps they are better off at work. This is not entirely borne out by the distribution of intelligence in the following groups:

IQ.'s	Entering		Those Leaving Per cent
	Class Per cent	Graduating Class Per cent	
115-135	8	11	9
105-114	17	21	20
95-104	36	37	27
80- 94	39	31	44

The differences in distribution in intelligence are so small as to be almost insignificant. The fact that nearly a third of the graduating class are "slow" pupils shows that much has been done "to put a reasonable measure of success within the reach of each child" through differentiation in elective courses and in classification. Throughout the school pupils are classified according to achievement and intelligence, thus

THE FUNCTIONS OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

making a differentiation possible in methods of instruction and in rate of progress. Slow pupils are encouraged to elect the less theoretical and more practical subjects. Almost as large a percentage of pupils above 105 I.Q. (29 per cent) were among those who left as among the graduating class (32 per cent). Certainly such pupils were capable of success in high school.

The fact that nearly a third of the class were "slow" in their learning rate has an interesting corollary in the age distribution:

Group Age	Age	Intelligence	
	Distribution	Distribution	
Young 16-17....	11%	11%	Bright
—Normal 17-18....	32%	21%	High Average
+Normal 18-19....	38%	37%	Low Average
Overage 19+....	19%	31%	Slow

This shows that, although the "slow" pupils made the grade, they took thirteen to fifteen years to do twelve years' work. Most of the retardation occurred, however, in the elementary school. So much for the time element, but they also averaged lower in their achievement, and took subjects requiring less scholastic aptitude and more practical consideration.

INTELLIGENCE AND HONORS

Another interesting question is whether the slow pupils have a fair chance of suc-

cess in terms of winning high honors. Is it a foregone conclusion that some pupils can *easily* make the honor society while others can *never* make it?

I.Q.	Per cent of Distribution in Entire Class	Per cent of Distribution in Honor Society	Per cent of Chance for Honor Society
115	24	15	62
105-114	45	9	20
95-104	80	8	10
80- 95	67	2	3

This table should be read thus: Of 24 pupils in the class who had I.Q.'s of 115 or more, 15 made the honor society, or 62 per cent of the group. Such pupils have about twenty times as good a chance to make the honor society as pupils in the slow group.

A study of the records of the honor-society pupils in the slowest group is very surprising. It will be interesting to see if their success after school agrees with their record of scholastic achievement or with their test of scholastic aptitude. In both cases the subjects elected were not "easy" courses. The pupils excelled in persistence, personality, and character. Both secured very good positions after graduation and are doing well in them.

THE FUNCTIONS AND ORGANIZATION OF EDUCATIONAL AND VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

A CONFERENCE REPORT

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The following article is a report of a conference group composed of Mrs. Erma B. Christy, Miss Frances J. Stewart, and Mr. Francis G. Rosecrance, with the criticism and cooperation of Drs. John M. Brewer, Jesse B. Davis, Franklin J. Keller, Fred C. Smith, Edward A. Lincoln, Richard D. Allen, and Mr. A. B. Bristow.*

F. E. L.

A generation ago secondary education was not so popular as it is today. Since 1890 the population of the country has increased about 80 per cent, while the enrollment in high school has grown about 2500 per cent. Naturally, school authorities have become engrossed in the task of providing buildings, equipment, teachers, and a score of

other related problems. It is not surprising, therefore, that schools have not kept pace with all of the desirable educational advances.

While they have been grappling with the problem of numbers, the fact of individual differences, which has been demonstrated beyond doubt, has escaped attention. To

secure true equality of opportunity, an education must be provided for each individual in accordance with his interests, needs, abilities, and prospects. This service to the individual is provided by the guidance program.

High-school pupils especially need individual counsel. Wherever there is departmental instruction there is special need for a service which will study the individual, not as an English student nor as a shop pupil, but as a whole person. The rapid increase in the size and complexity of secondary schools has made adjustments in school life more difficult for the pupil. Moreover, some apparently well-adjusted pupils have been shown to be as maladjusted as those who were considered serious problems. The pupil in the adolescent age probably needs individual guidance more than at any other time in his school life. It should not be taken for granted that pupils are satisfactorily adjusted to the school, merely because they are doing satisfactory work, nor should the entire responsibility for his orientation be placed upon the individual pupil.

Furthermore, the fact that the majority of high-school students are faced with the necessity of taking their places shortly in an increasingly complex occupational world means that they should have counsel and advice in selecting a field of work suited to their individual interests and abilities. From the social viewpoint, the proper adjustment of the individual to life, both as a worker and as a citizen of the community, is essential. Society pays in taxes when an individual is not able to support himself economically or has antisocial reactions. It is highly desirable also that the individual should have proper adjustment for his own mental and physical health and happiness. There is needed a guidance service which aims to anticipate problems, to discover and prevent difficulties.

FUNCTIONS OF GUIDANCE

To describe a submarine in terms of the periscope would be as accurate as to conceive a guidance program from only one of its parts. Successful guidance must be based upon the three functions: personnel research, counseling, and orientation.

I. *Personnel records and research* require the continuous scientific study of pupils as individuals as well as of the factors that condition their success in school. This is basic to any kind of safe counseling or group guidance.

Every school should, therefore, know its pupils. Inventories should be made and continuous records kept regarding each pupil's (1) general health, (2) aptitudes, (3) interests, (4) abilities, (5) school history, and (6) home conditions. Although all of these data are valuable, especially if they can be obtained by objective methods, it should be remembered that facts are valuable only when they are used. The study and use of such information is a problem of personnel research.

Proper adjustment of the pupil is fundamental to educational efficiency. Without it there will be unnecessary school drop-outs, subject failures, and subject withdrawals with the attending increase of costs to parents and the public. More disastrous is the permanent effect of these failures upon boys and girls. Personnel research enables the school administrator to prevent and remove such difficulties. Furthermore, it enables him to conduct the school with such vision and skill that every student will more nearly approach a realization of his possibilities. No accidental, unorganized procedure can meet such challenges. They require a specifically organized plan of personnel study for which definite time and responsibility should be assigned.

II. *Counseling* of the individual must be based on the findings of personnel research. At best mass education is a "buckshot"

THE FUNCTIONS OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

method of reaching the individual. Some "hits" are recorded, it is true, but they ought not be left to chance, and it "ought not to be necessary for a child to become a problem to receive individual attention." Interviews should be made possible for all students. Not until an adviser or principal has interviewed numbers of boys and girls and permitted them to tell him what they believe to be their problems will there be obtained a true appreciation of the difficulties which confront normal young people.

Interviews may be sought either by the student or by the adviser, but as far as possible, the student should be stimulated to take the initiative in seeking a conference. Provision should be made, however, to reach those pupils who will not seek counsel. An interview with each pupil each year should be the minimum requirement in a modern secondary school. Such a conference involves more than merely talking with the pupil. It utilizes facts regarding the individual and his environment, and a technique which includes a careful approach, winning the confidence of the pupil, and a joint working out of his problem that he may have a feeling of satisfaction regarding the interview.

In some cases an individual fails to respond satisfactorily to his school environment because of some home or other out-of-school condition. This situation necessitates the right kind of contacts with the home by means of which the ideas and problems of the one may be recognized by the other. Such home visits should have for their purpose the understanding of the home by the school and the interpretation of the school to the home. Every well-organized plan of guidance should include, eventually, a trained visitor or visiting teacher. These visitors may often be attached to the attendance department or the department of research and guidance in a large system. In some cities it would seem advisable that, for

greater convenience and coöperation, the attendance department become a branch of the department of research and guidance.

The proper study of, and counseling with pupils in the early stages of maladjustment should prevent most serious problem cases. Formerly, counseling was the task of the principal; but with the increase in the size of the schools and the consequent emphasis upon his administrative and supervisory functions, the principal can no longer do so, nor is it economical for him to give his personal attention to other than the more serious cases. Even in these he should have the complete history of the pupil from the records of the guidance department.

III. *Orientation* includes group guidance in various questions of conduct and ideals and the giving of educational and occupational information. This should grow out of the actual common needs of the pupils rather than the hypothetical needs. From interviews, the study of personnel records, home visits, attendance and disciplinary records, and many other sources, there will be gradually accumulated a list of problems that are common to the majority of pupils. These can be dealt with most economically through group instruction.

One of the special advantages of the orientation program is that it may be undertaken through a reorganization of the school curricula without increasing the pupil load, without additional cost, and without the appointment of additional teachers. Room can be made by the reorganization of other subjects if the superintendent and principal realize the importance of the service. In the past, much orientation has been delegated to homeroom teachers and English teachers, and much of it has been done indifferently. It needs to be reorganized, vitalized, and taught by a teacher who is interested in the subject and trained for the work.

The following outline, under the above headings, is given here to include the essential functions of the guidance department.

I. Personnel research. (The adjustment of the worker in his work)

1. Continuous records of attendance, health, achievement, interests, personal data.
2. Records of periodic surveys of intelligence, educational tests, aptitudes, prospects.
3. Studies of pupil adjustment in classification, and choices of electives.
4. Studies in articulation and pupil turnover.
5. Basic data for construction of the school program.
6. Studies for a re-definition of school and curricular objectives.
7. Psychological and psychiatric examinations (provided the services of a trained worker are available).
8. Records, pamphlets, and catalogues of schools for further education.

II. Counseling. Such work includes interviews about—

1. Leaving school to enter employment (interview with pupil and parent—employment service and issue of work certificate).
2. Checking unwise choices of electives.
3. Special problems of health, absence, failure, transfer, social adjustment.
4. Home visits and conferences with parent.
5. Educational and vocational plans.
6. Periodic check-up on educational progress.
7. Possible changes in the school curriculum and program which concern teachers, department heads, and the principal.
8. Follow up reports of graduates and of employed pupils in evening or continuation school's.

III. Orientation. Such work should include teaching—

1. How to study, how to budget one's time, how to succeed in school, how to take examinations.
2. How to use the guidance library.
3. How to choose electives, colleges, other educational opportunities, vocational education.
4. Vocational opportunities, the study of occupations, local employments, apprenticeship, evening schools.
5. How to meet problems of personal and social relations, student legislature or forum, case-conferences, student council, school civic problems, etc.

ADMINISTRATION AND ORGANIZATION FOR
GUIDANCE

Individual guidance has always been given by some teachers to some pupils in our schools; but adequate guidance for all pupils requires an organization based on personnel research, counseling, and orientation, to make sure that every child has the advantages which only the most favored have enjoyed in the past.

The first step in initiating a guidance program is to enlist the interest of all the teachers in the school. This is of fundamental importance because their thought, coöperation, and enthusiasm are necessary if the pupils are to have the service which the guidance department should give. Probably more attempts to organize a guidance program have failed because teachers have not been carefully or fully informed of the purposes of the work than from any other single cause.

The pupil's need for individual consideration and attention in order that the teacher may help him prevent difficulties, make satisfactory present progress, and discover future potentialities should challenge all educators. They should feel that this is not something added to education, but that helping the individual is the core of education itself. Teachers should have a part in studying the particular problems of the local situation and a voice in preparing the plans with which to meet them.

The faculty of the school might study (a) the reasons for pupils dropping out of school, (b) what becomes of such pupils and of graduates, (c) the causes of subject failures and withdrawals, (d) the lack of more student leadership, (e) evidences of bad placement, and (f) adjustment within the school. Any guidance program must be built on the needs of the local situation. Such a study will not only reveal the strategic points for beginning guidance work, but it will aid in convincing teachers of the need for it.

THE FUNCTIONS OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

Meanwhile the staff of the school should be studied to find persons fitted by experience and training to become advisers and counselors. Every school, regardless of size, has some teachers better qualified than others to undertake guidance activities. Professional training in guidance is desirable, but need not be a requisite for initiating a guidance program. However, persons chosen should be willing to undertake professional training for guidance work. Such teachers should be organized into a committee to outline a program of guidance based on the findings of the faculty. This plan should bring together under personnel work, counseling, and orientation, all of the existing guidance services, such as testing, visiting teacher work, psychiatric service, and placement. An organization is merely to fix the responsibilities and assign the work of guidance to those who can do it best.

Although no attempt is made to include all of the possibilities for a practical guidance program for the average school, the following plan has proved to have many advantages in actual practice.

1. In a four-year high school there should be four or eight class advisers (in a three-year school, three or six advisers) depending upon the size and organization of the school. Each of these teachers should act as adviser of a group until it graduates. The homeroom teachers of the various sections of the class of each grade should constitute a committee under the leadership of the class adviser for the guidance activities of the class. This committee should function as a coördinating and articulating body in the activities of the class and school. There should be, however, such a division of duties between the class adviser and homeroom teachers that the latter will assume the responsibility for only those activities for which they have had training and experience.

Such class advisers should be relieved of

two-fifths of the average teaching load for every 200-300 pupils in order to devote the proper time to counseling and personnel work; and their teaching programs should be arranged so that they will meet each pupil of their group in the Orientation Class at least once a week throughout the life of the pupil in the school.

Eventually such advisers should be permitted in turn to spend one day every two weeks outside of the school for the purposes of occupational research. Such a plan would give each adviser training and experience with actual working conditions and occupational problems. The studies should be obtained, as far as possible, by visits to the educational and occupational centers in the community. Such field contacts will not only provide the counselor with experience and information which will vitalize his counseling and orientation program, but they will afford a means for bringing into the school and to other teachers live and up-to-date information regarding the world into which their students will enter. Personal follow-up of former pupils will provide the opportunity for evaluating guidance service previously given and be a means of modifying and making the present program more effective.

2. There should be a chief adviser, responsible to the principal of the school, who should coördinate and supervise the class advisers to provide a unified program of guidance for the school. The chief adviser and the heads of departments within each school should meet under the leadership of the principal to exchange information for the formulation or revision of school policies and for the necessary curricular revisions.

3. If there are several senior and junior high schools, their advisers should meet under the leadership of a staff officer to discuss problems and formulate policies. The natural coördination agency would be a central guidance and placement office which

would supervise the follow-up study of graduates, assist in the standardization of records and reports, furnish contacts between school and employers, collect and disseminate educational and occupational information, and establish relations with civic clubs and social agencies.

The above plan makes possible the actual achievement of careful, individual guidance for all pupils. It keeps pupil groups of reasonable size so that the class adviser may know each individual. It provides a means for continuous personnel research over a period of years and opportunity for group and individual contacts. It charges the adviser with the responsibility for arousing interests and providing a background of occupational information and social experiences. Administrators will recognize this as a program varied enough to challenge the interests and efforts of a counselor. It will make him feel that guidance is his main work in the educational field and make it worth while for him to specialize in it.

Of course, this is not the only plan which may be used to accomplish these ends. Opportunity for individual and group guidance has been provided by organizing student schedules so that all pupils of the same grade are assigned to study periods at the same hour; for example, all seniors would have no classes the third period. Since the class adviser is unassigned for the corresponding period, he may have individual or group conferences during that time without interrupting the work of the regular school. Some schools have a regular homeroom period each day. The class adviser rotates among the sections of his class, meeting each at least once a week.

The mechanics of administering any guidance program can at best be only suggestive because the individual on the job, with a thorough understanding of the situation, is the person to plan the details of his program. The administrator who sees clearly such definite goals as adjusting each

child to his school environment and developing in the child the ability for self-guidance and who understands some of the plans which may be used to accomplish these ends will be able to build in his school the organization which will be the best to offer this service to the pupils.

✓ DESIRABLE OUTCOMES

What outcomes may be reasonably expected from an adequate guidance program?

1. If in setting up the machinery we have not lost sight of the purpose of it—to help the individual—there will result a change in attitude and methods of the school. Not the subject of instruction, nor the smooth operation of the school, but the boy and girl will be the center of interest. Their success will be an occasion for satisfaction, and their failure will call for a careful study of methods and of the child that the difficulty may be found and removed. Instruction and administration will be devoted to the serving of the individual needs of all of the children with whatever changes in the curriculum this may necessitate.

2. The present progress and adjustment of pupils will be improved. Fewer boys and girls will leave school. There will be fewer subject failures and subject withdrawals. The standards of scholarship will gradually rise. The morale of the student body will improve as each pupil realizes the friendly interest of the school in his problems, progress, and plans. Young people will be better informed about the future and will face it more intelligently.

3. Hence, there should be fewer mal-adjustments—misfits—in their later educational and occupational lives. More of the students should be putting their individual abilities to greater use. There should be less waste of talent.

A program of guidance tends to ensure a boy and girl a more satisfactory present adjustment and progress, and a happier and larger future achievement.

SHOULD THE ADVISER OR COUNSELOR DEAL WITH PROBLEMS OF DISCIPLINE

A. B. BRISTOW

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The present article comes from Mr. Bristow's experience as principal of the Matthew Fontaine Maury High School, Norfolk, Virginia. He presented a phase of his guidance program in the March number of Volume IV of the CLEARING HOUSE when he wrote of the records and reports in the counselor's office.*

F. E. L.

In secondary schools in which advisers have been employed, one of the most troublesome problems is the relation of the adviser to discipline. Usually the personality of the adviser, her experience and training, and her knowledge of the pupils, all render her specially fitted for such work. The harassed principal naturally turns to her for assistance, and the exasperated homeroom or classroom teacher finds it convenient to dispose of her serious problems by referring them to the class adviser. Such a situation is naturally very flattering at first, especially if the adviser likes authority and responsibility. Not every person, however, can keep clearly in his own mind the nature of the various relationships involved in such a situation. Moreover, it is still more difficult to ensure that even the principal and teachers, to say nothing of the pupils, will clearly understand the proper relationships that are involved. For these reasons a discussion may help to clarify the situation.

The founders of the republic wisely distinguished between, and separated the legislative, executive, and judicial functions of government. They did not expect or permit the busy and harassed executive to make and enforce laws, to investigate crimes, and also to pronounce judgment. These were the tasks of deliberative bodies and judicial tribunals. They knew the danger of inadequate investigation, of hasty action, of decisions without sufficient evidence, and of indignation, however, righteous it might be. But in the government of our children in school we have not been careful to ensure them against the miscarriage of justice. The principal may well

find difficulty in playing the triple rôle of legislator, judge, and executive, and remembering which individual he is impersonating at the moment. The phrase, *in loco parentis*, further obscures the situation.

The obvious escape from the difficulty is for him to delegate some functions to the members of his staff. The better executive he is, the more functions he will delegate and the more wisely he will distribute them. If possible, he will distribute them so that those who are called upon to perform them will not be compelled to attempt to play two or three conflicting rôles at the same time. In other words, he will not delegate the *entire problem of discipline* as such to the dean or the adviser, but will delegate *certain aspects of discipline, retaining the control in his own hands*. In this way, the dean or adviser does not become an assistant principal or assume executive functions.

In the first place, the wise principal, as a good executive, will naturally take his faculty into consultation in formulating school policies and regulations. This does not imply an abdication of authority, but rather implies the exercise of professional leadership and the training of the faculty by the method of the conference. In this way the principal may gradually dissociate himself largely from the *legislative* functions of school administration.

In the same way he may consult with the pupils through a school council. This also should be an advisory council rather than a legislative assembly, thus furnishing student participation but not necessarily student government. There is a distinct and importance difference; the former has

an educational aim, while the latter may become a political menace.

By such measures a principal may become the leader and teacher of both faculty and student body without losing his authority. At the same time he finds it easier to dissociate himself from the legislative functions of school government. This should make it possible for him to deal with cases of discipline with a more impersonal and judicial attitude, since the rules that are broken will not be *his* rules but the rules of the faculty that have been endorsed by the student council. Such a status is very important in ensuring a modern and enlightened attitude in matters of school discipline.

But the problem is still unsolved, for the principal must investigate, pass judgment, and inflict punishment. There is grave danger that the busy executive will not take time to investigate thoroughly. He will feel that he "must support the teacher," that the pupil "must be taught a lesson for the benefit of other children," and that "the reputation of the school must be maintained." He is not a psychologist or a psychiatrist to determine the *causes* of juvenile conduct. He knows that something happened, that it is destructive of school discipline, and that it must not be permitted to occur again. Therefore the obvious conclusion is that the pupil should be punished and taught a lesson. He employs a *criminal* procedure when an *educational* procedure might have been better if *he had had the time to investigate, the knowledge to diagnose, and the skill to apply the best method.*

Let us be specific by means of an illustration. John has been so exasperating in his conduct that Miss Jones can no longer tolerate his presence. He is sent to the principal with a note stating the case and ending with the words: "I simply cannot have him in the class any longer." What should be the principal's procedure? Shall

he back up the teacher on what appears to be a clear case? Shall he call in the parents? Suspend the pupil? Drop all his other duties and investigate the case by listening to the boy's side, talking with other teachers, looking up previous records, etc.? Shall he say he is too busy and refer the case to the dean, adviser, homeroom teacher, head of a department, or vice principal? Is there any particular procedure that offers the best possible solution in such a case?

The suggested procedure is as follows: Instead of assuming an air of dignity and authority, instead of blustering, threatening, or calling in parents, the wise principal receives the pupil in a *friendly* manner. The pupil is confronted with a very serious problem. Of course he cannot return to class under the circumstances. If he makes excuses, blames the teacher, or makes light of the matter, the principal is certain that there must be a mistake, since Miss Jones is a dependable and fair-minded teacher. Has the pupil had trouble with other teachers? There isn't time to investigate the situation just now, but the principal will look into the matter as soon as possible. In the meantime the pupil can spend his time in some other room instead of in Miss Jones's class. If the case is very serious or a repeated offense he might be suspended for the remainder of the session or *until the time requirement is satisfied*. *There is always a time element in every situation if an educational procedure is to be tried rather than a criminal procedure.* As the boy turns to go, apparently as an after thought, the principal might say "I am really very sorry that I can't look into this matter at once. Who is your adviser? It might be a good plan for you to talk the situation over with her. But do as you please about it. I will see you tomorrow at — o'clock."

Let us see what has happened. John faces a problem. *He doesn't know what to do about it.* Instead of its being the teacher's problem or the principal's problem, it

PROBLEMS OF DISCIPLINE

is *his* problem. Shall he consult the adviser? He doesn't have to do so. What shall he tell the adviser? She has no authority. She isn't going to punish him. He may be ashamed to go to her, but she will probably hear about it anyhow. By this time he wants to tell some one his story and get advice and counsel. He has had time to cool off, but he must think through the entire situation. This the adviser can help him do under such circumstances far better than if she were vested with judicial and executive authority. She is now merely a friendly counselor to aid in a problem involving conduct.

The pupil now goes to his class adviser. She has known him since he entered the school. She knows his record with other teachers and pupils, his family background, his interests and activities, and his aspirations and ambitions. (At least she knows these things if the school-guidance program has been organized to ensure adequate records, time for individual interviews with pupils before they become school problems, and a group-guidance program that provides weekly contacts of the adviser with each section of her class in a forum period where the adviser can study the pupils in action, discussing the problems of personal and social relationships.) The pupil lays his problem before the adviser. *The wise adviser never advises.* Instead, she listens, asks questions, recalls similar situations, *allows the pupil to think through his own problem*, explaining it as he goes, exactly as if he were doing a problem in mathematics on the board. When he thinks that he has found the right answer, the adviser suggests that he prove it. What will probably happen if that solution is attempted? If the probable result is unsatisfactory, the pupil must find another plan. *An educational procedure requires that the pupil do his own thinking.* The adviser should *ask*, not *tell* in most situations.

In practically every case the pupil will finally devise a fair solution under the guidance of the adviser. Moreover it is *his own* solution. When he goes to the principal for his appointment, the principal will probably say that he has been too busy to investigate the matter and is sorry, but he must postpone action until the next day. The boy will then suggest his own solution for the principal's decision. The principal may either approve or "think it over" for a day. Under either circumstance the problem is practically solved and *in most cases it stays solved because it is the child's own solution.*

In such a conception of discipline the principal has made use of the adviser as an assistant without delegating to her either executive or judicial authority. She is not a policeman, a judge, an executioner, and *she has maintained a cordial, friendly relation with the pupil as his adviser.* The principal has conserved his time, maintained his authority, made a friend of the boy, taught an effective lesson in citizenship, and settled the problem in a way that promises a more permanent solution than the older criminal procedure. Perhaps if educators should make a practice of using educational procedures in problems of school discipline, the time may come when educational procedures will supplant criminal and disciplinary procedures in cases of juvenile delinquency. Or better still, the use of educational procedures in school problems may prevent many of the later problems of juvenile delinquency.

But to return to the original question. Should advisers handle cases of discipline? The answer is—whose business is it to diagnose the case as one for discipline or for guidance? Why not let the child himself decide? If by such a procedure he can arrive at and propose to the principal a solution that is satisfactory—clearly it was guidance that he needed. If he is unable to arrive at a solution, then the adviser

must confess, sadly, that she is unable to help him. Is it then a problem of discipline? No, the parent may be able to present a solution. If not, the case is suf-

ficiently serious for a psychiatrist. If he fails, then try punishment as a last resort, not because it is the *right* way, but because we as yet know no other.

WHERE SHOULD THE RESPONSIBILITY BE PLACED FOR THE ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION, AND SUPERVISION OF GUIDANCE IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

A CONFERENCE REPORT

PART I

Authorities on educational administration and supervision are not at present in agreement concerning the organization of guidance in the public schools. Most of the differences of opinion arise from the lack of a common understanding concerning the functions of guidance and pupil personnel work in the various school units. Such work is new, but it has justified itself to the point where many modern progressive school systems have already undertaken, or are planning to undertake, the organization of guidance departments. The functions of these departments are gradually becoming more definite and in many school systems various activities that are related to pupil adjustment are being coördinated to ensure coöperation, growth, and efficiency, and to prevent overlapping, divided authority, duplication, and inefficiency. The present report is the result of a number of conferences of instructors in the Summer School at the Harvard Graduate School of Education, including Dr. John M. Brewer, Dr. Jesse B. Davis, Mr. A. B. Bristow, Dr. Franklin J. Keller, Dr. Fred C. Smith, Dr. Edward A. Lincoln and Dr. Richard D. Allen. Beginning with positions that presented wide differences of opinion, after a number of conferences they found themselves in substantial agreement concerning the following facts: principles and plans for the organization, administration, and supervision of guidance in a public-school system.

1. Every teacher who comes in contact

with children can be and should be an important influence for good in their lives, should be interested in their problems, study their needs, and be ready to assist and guide them. All instruction should be accompanied by guidance: the teacher's duty, according to Inglis, is to "learn," to motivate, to instruct, and *to guide* the child. Motivation is often guidance of the best type, and the task of "learning" the children is certainly not alone the task of the specialist in guidance. In dealing with the organization of guidance in the public schools, it is not proposed to deprive the classroom teacher of any of her guidance functions. Let her still do all that she can do and do well, but the work which she cannot do and which requires special training and experience should be departmentalized in order to promote efficiency and to provide proper articulation of functions. This is no more than has been done in other departments: every teacher should be an English teacher, a teacher of citizenship, a teacher of the scientific attitude towards problems, a teacher of incidental mathematics. But efficiency demands the subject specialist as well as coöperating subject teachers in many phases of the work of the school. In the same way effective organized guidance demands the trained adviser who is skilled in the study of individual differences, of the psychology of youth, of the field of occupation, and who is willing and able to prepare to become expert in developing social and moral leadership, in building right attitudes, and in helping to

RESPONSIBILITY FOR GUIDANCE IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

formulate wise educational and vocational plans.

Advisers need not assume the work which other teachers want to do and can do efficiently. Principals should not permit such work to be delegated to them. Neither do the advisers supersede the principal: They merely help him in doing for many what he can do for only a few. In every sense the adviser is a special assistant to the principal of the school and as completely under his authority as any other teacher in the building. Whatever supervision is provided from the superintendent's staff should be carried on with the knowledge, consent, and authority of the principal. The purpose of such supervision should be:

- (1) To recommend improved facilities, equipment, methods, training.
- (2) To coördinate the work of various units in the system.
- (3) To provide for discussion, interchange of methods and devices, and professional interest and growth.

2. Organized guidance and pupil personnel work should have its beginnings in the elementary schools, should be continued and expanded in the secondary schools, should extend into placement, continuation, and evening schools, and should be an integral part of every vocational curriculum. Since problems of discipline and attendance are in most cases caused by school, home, and social maladjustment, the work of attendance departments and home visitors should be considered as guidance functions. The work of child guidance clinics has shown the proper method for the clinical treatment and follow-up of problem children. Many of these functions which have grown up independently should be recognized for their true purpose and combined or co-ordinated in a guidance department.

3. Guidance is a continuous and unitary function: it is impracticable to separate

guidance problems as social, educational, and vocational, and to assign them to home-room teachers, class sponsors, deans, and vocational counselors on such a basis. Every problem of social guidance has its educational and vocational aspects and implications; every problem of educational guidance has its social and vocational aspects; and every problem of vocational guidance has its social and educational aspects. The tendency to place them in separate and unrelated departments is inefficient, illogical, and sure to retard the development of the work.

4. There are three phases of guidance work in every school unit: personnel records and research, individual counseling and adjustment, and orientation or group guidance. An adequate program requires "all three legs to the stool." Moreover, the proper development of the program, the efficiency of the work, and the training of the worker require that *all three of these phases should be combined in the program of the guidance worker.* In addition to these there are other subjects of instruction having guidance values but which are part of general education and not entirely chargeable to guidance.

5. In the various school units, aside from guidance through the curriculum, different functions require greater emphasis.

a. In the elementary grades, the proper adjustment of pupils through grading, classification, and differentiation is more important since it lays a basis for later guidance in the secondary schools. Such work must depend largely upon objective data secured from educational and psychological tests, physical examinations, reports of the child guidance clinic for problem children, and reports of social workers or home visitors. This properly comes under the heading of personnel records and research. There are also counseling problems and orientation problems that must be met through the curriculum or by teachers and

principals, but the chief emphasis is usually placed upon pupil adjustment.

b. In the junior high school, although personnel records and research are essential, and although there are many problems for the counselor, the principal task is that of orientation or group guidance. This includes educational information, occupational information and problems, and social problems dealing with personal and group relationships.

c. In the senior-high-school grades, personnel records and research are still fundamental, and orientation is still important, but individual counseling becomes of greater importance because of the need of differentiation in educational and vocational plans, the growing complexity of the curriculum, the number of pupils leaving school, and the social problems of adolescence.

d. Similar differences in emphasis occur in evening schools, in the placement office, in continuation schools, and in vocational schools. These are treated in detail in the February issue of the *Vocational Guidance Magazine* for the current year.

6. In units beyond the elementary grades, the conference recommends that the work should be a function of a department of advisers rather than of a single individual.

a. A single adviser, counselor, or dean in a large school may provide guidance through individual counseling for *problem pupils*, thus relieving the principal, but no single individual could be responsible for *all three functions* (records and research, counseling, and orientation) for *an entire school*. *Guidance should serve all pupils before they become "problems."*

b. A guidance department provides greater continuity, better likelihood of the growth of advisers through conference and mutual encouragement and assistance, and avoids troublesome problems of titles, permanent tenure, and special privileges.

c. Class or grade advisers of groups between two and three hundred pupils should

have at least one period for private individual conferences in the junior high school, and two periods in the senior high school each day in addition to their group guidance program and other subject instruction. Every adviser should meet each section of her grade twice each week in the junior high school, and at least once each week in the senior high school, for purposes of group guidance. This provides a program of *regular instruction in the guidance field* and places guidance in the curriculum as well as in the administration of the school. Teaching service is necessary so that advisers shall retain the necessary teacher attitude in order that they may deal with other teachers more intelligently and effectively. They should not assume administrative attitudes. Such a program is necessary for the recognition and prevention of problems; otherwise, guidance must be largely remedial.

d. Class advisers do not "crowd out" the homeroom teacher or the subject teacher from the guidance field. Many functions can be efficiently performed by these teachers and should be retained by them. There are other functions, however, which require a specialist—which all teachers cannot perform equally well and which must not be bungled, overlooked, or neglected. Such matters as the study of individual differences, the use of results of educational and psychological tests, the planning of school programs, the conduct of the group, orientation course, the classification of pupils, and the counseling of problem cases, these are matters for the specialist in guidance methods and problems. Even if these problems are given to the adviser, there remains a considerable list of guidance functions for homeroom and subject teachers.

PART II

With the functions and principles somewhat defined, let us proceed to the administration and supervision of the guidance program.

CLINICAL TREATMENT OF PROBLEM CHILDREN

1. Since guidance is a continuous function, following pupils throughout their entire school course, it cannot logically be made subsidiary to the staff officer in charge of elementary schools, secondary schools, or vocational education.

2. Since it deals with many pupils who are in no way placement or attendance problems, it can hardly come under the placement or the attendance departments.

3. The health or physical-education department reaches all children as does the department of research; both provide continuous inspection, examinations, and adjustment, but a particular department head may have no interest in guidance or training for it. Such is the case in many cities.

4. Citizenship training should be a continuous function including character education, the prevention of juvenile delinquency, and possibly supervision of the social studies, but most school systems have not reached the point in the development of supervision where such an arrangement seems practical.

5. One thing seems certain, *a staff officer, responsible to the superintendent*, who is a specialist in guidance and personnel prob-

lems should be charged with the responsibility for the administration and supervision of the guidance program. He should have studied the functions of departments most closely related to guidance work, such as:

- a. educational and psychological tests
- b. attendance and discipline and the work of the home visitor
- c. problems of the child guidance clinic
- d. problems of personnel research
- e. methods of group guidance
- f. principles and practice of educational and vocational guidance
- g. counseling and administration of guidance

In some school systems a combination has been made of research and guidance which tends to make guidance more scientific and to give a human slant to research. In other systems where personal problems in the personnel of the staff make such an arrangement unwise, the various related departments may well be grouped under a general staff officer, thus tending to bring about co-operation if not amalgamation. Such an arrangement should be regarded as temporary and expedient but not as an ideal organization.

THE CLINICAL TREATMENT AND FOLLOW-UP OF PROBLEM CHILDREN

WILLIAM F. REDDING

EDITOR'S NOTE: Mr. William F. Redding is Director of Attendance and Discipline in the Providence schools. He also has charge of the work of the visiting teachers and of the serious disciplinary cases. He was formerly head of the Guidance Department in the Commercial High School and assistant principal of the Esek Hopkins Junior High School in Providence. During the summer of 1927 he was instructor in guidance in the summer session of Leland Stanford University.

R. D. A.

The news of the day is full of stories of young criminals and of accusations that modern youth is headed for destruction. There is no doubt of the fact that modern youth deserves considerably more attention on the part of educators. Who is responsible for the juvenile crime wave which seems to be at its crest at the present time? One observer claims that immigration is

responsible and that nationality is the principal factor. He calls attention to the large proportion of Italian or Polish names in the news reports. Students of sociology, however, are inclined to feel that the neighborhood rather than the nationality is responsible. They point out that the same slum sections have produced criminals year after year in spite of the fact that national-

ity has changed from Irish, to Italian, to Negro. These claim that social environment is the explanation rather than heredity or nationality.

Other observers frankly blame the schools for the failure to correct antisocial tendencies in the pupils. "As the twig is bent" is a good motto, and it is the business of the schools to see that the twigs are bent. Such an accusation certainly ought to turn the attention of school people to studying the tendencies of pupils, the causes of juvenile delinquency, the history of the development of crime, possible methods of prevention, and more intensive research into the nature of discipline in its best sense.

The study of psychology, the records of the psychological clinic, the experience of the child guidance or mental hygiene clinics, and the researches of the psychiatrists have gradually accumulated a tremendous mass of data concerning the origin and nature of crime and criminal tendencies. In fact, in one large school system during the past year it has been stated that practically every outstanding crime was committed by an individual concerning whom there was a record in the psychological clinic 10 or 15 years previous and in practically every case the psychologist had predicted what actually happened. Could these crimes have been prevented had there been an effective follow-up service? Is it not possible to develop a machinery which will keep track of cases of antisocial tendencies and traits which we are practically sure will cause trouble in the future? We no longer let people operate automobiles with defective brakes. Why should we allow incipient criminals the freedom to develop their anti-social instincts to the point where they run amuck and take or ruin innocent lives?

It has been said that there should be little need for juvenile courts if the schools would do well the tasks which they should be expected to do. Contrast the juvenile court into which children are sent with the

regular criminal courts about which our Constitution has spread so many safeguards to ensure that innocent people are not convicted of crimes. An adult criminal must be tried in the district where the crime was committed. He must be faced by his accusers, he is permitted to retain counsel, and if unable to do so, counsel is furnished for him at State expense. He has the right to call witnesses and even to compel them to come and testify, and he has a right to trial by court, not by the officer who has caught him, or by the police captain, or by the makers of the law, but before an impartial judge and a jury of his peers. Contrast with this the juvenile criminal in the juvenile court. For him the district is his own neighborhood, not his own city. He is taken out of the district where the crime is committed. He never has a trial before his own peers. Both counsel and witnesses are frequently lacking. The determining factor is frequently the testimony of the officer who has arrested him. Although in a large majority of cases young delinquents are treated with great consideration and given the benefit of every doubt, still the procedure is a *criminal* procedure and remedial rather than preventive.

Mental hygiene and the child guidance clinics sponsored by the Commonwealth Fund have shown the way by tracing conduct to its causes. Personnel research in educational systems has added to this a knowledge of the factors involved. For instance, about 80 per cent of truancy cases are found to be those of children who are seriously retarded in school. In the same way, children in disciplinary classes in the elementary grades are practically all seriously retarded, in median chronological age, three years beyond the norm of the grade. Most of them are children who should have had special attention in ungraded or special classes, and the failure of the school system to provide proper adjustment for them has resulted in a natural

GUIDANCE PROGRAM FOR ANY JUNIOR-HIGH SCHOOL

rebellion against school authority. The formula reads something like this:

Given a child who is handicapped mentally, physically, educationally, or socially. Neglect to provide proper adjustment and remedial treatment. Assign him tasks that are beyond his ability to accomplish. Reward his best efforts with failure and retardation in school, with scolding, reproofs, and ridicule by teachers and parents, and with the taunts of his associates. Compare him unfavorably with younger and brighter, or less handicapped children to his shame and humiliation. When he tries to escape by running away, send a truant officer to his home to threaten his parents with court action unless they teach him a lesson. When forced to attend school, call him a "bad boy" before the class and treat him like a "baby" (remembering that he is older than the other children). When he rebels by showing anger or talking back, send him to the principal who may deprive him of participation in school activities, the only school work in which he can win the respect of his fellows. For repeated offenses, sullenness, or truancy, transfer him to another school or require a whipping blank, or send him to a disciplinary or "bad boys' school" to mix with other outcasts. Deny him simple luxuries and pleasures that others enjoy, while fixing a stigma upon him that makes his fellows shun him. Let him feel that he hasn't a friend in the world—at school or at home—that every man's hand is against him, and that he has done nothing to really deserve such treatment. Then offer him the companionship of kindred spirits in illegal pursuits of pleasure or adventure. Let him be caught and detained with hardened criminals. Let him regard the representatives of the law as enemies who are persecuting him and his fellowmen as despising him. And finally deny him a legitimate means of earning the luxuries that all men crave, or even the bare necessities of existence. The result is a gangster and a criminal. A natural result—a sure formula even with normal children.

The formula has many variations by which various types of criminals may be produced. Describe almost any special type of criminal one may wish to make, give it to a good student of mental hygiene, and an almost sure formula can be devised to produce the desired result. It is a serious question whether the neglect of proper adjustment and individualization by the schools

is not resulting in the present overproduction of juvenile criminals.

One of the obstacles which has prevented the development of scientific study of problem children in the public schools has been the lack of coöordination and coöperation between the various departments and persons upon whom the responsibility rests. They themselves have not understood the broader purposes of their work. The study and guidance of problem children should not be separated from the study and guidance of normal children for the distinction between normal and problem children is a very fine one indeed. A knowledge of the normal child should help the person who is dealing with the abnormal children to help them to become more normal, while the study of the abnormal children should aid the adviser of the normal children to prevent incipient antisocial tendencies. The closest possible coöperation between the home visitors and teachers both in elementary and secondary schools should be encouraged and the home visitors and child guidance clinic for the clinical treatment and follow-up of problem children should be recognized as a part of the program of educational, vocational, and social guidance provided for all of the children of all of the people.

The tendency to delegate some of these tasks to the attendance department, others to the guidance department, others to instruction, others to homeroom teachers, deans, and other supervisory officers shows a lack of appreciation on the part of school administrators of the proper functions and relationships involved in a guidance program.

A GUIDANCE PROGRAM THAT ANY JUNIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL MAY UNDERTAKE

R. D. ALLEN

In any list of the aims and objectives of the junior high schools at least three fourths

of the items have as their purpose the educational, social, and vocational guidance and

adjustment of youth. The mere statement of such objectives, however, does not constitute a guarantee that they will be realized in actual practice. The live, earnest, professional principal, inspired with the spirit of service in his vocation, will insist upon the organization of his school for the purposes of realizing these objectives in actual practice. It is unreasonable to expect any curriculum, however carefully selected or well taught, to operate automatically as an instrument of guidance. The term "guidance" naturally implies persons who shall guide, and definite personal responsibility and personal contacts and relationships. It is vain to take for granted these major objectives of the junior high school. Their realization requires careful planning.

In view of these facts, how should a principal proceed to build up a guidance organization in his school in order that he may fix personal responsibility for all of the guidance functions? The following is a list of suggestions for the use of principals who wish to attempt such an undertaking.

1. Any plan of guidance should be prepared for by faculty discussions, by the arousing of interest among the teachers, and by a planning committee which can do much to ensure the orderly development and progress of the work.

2. A list of the guidance functions or services should be prepared, such as that in the December, 1929, issue of the *Vocational Guidance Magazine*. This may be extended to include many of the duties of homeroom teachers and subject teachers. It will soon become evident that some of the tasks require special techniques, training, and abilities. These tasks should be assigned to a few teachers who are capable of doing the work and are willing to prepare themselves for it, while the other tasks can still be divided among homeroom and subject teachers.

3. Having established the need for specialization on the part of a few teachers, the

next step might be the selection of from three to six class advisers who would voluntarily undertake some of the special guidance functions. These advisers should be chosen from

a) teachers to whom pupils naturally go with their problems and who are especially interested in young people

b) teachers who are capable of winning rather than commanding the coöperation of other teachers.

c) those who are distinctly not "high-pressure salesmen" but are willing to listen to the problems of children, ask questions, supply additional information, call attention to neglected phases of problems, and help children to arrive at their own decisions.

d) teachers who are willing to do a considerable amount of overtime work and are skillful in the handling of clerical and administrative details.

This is not an exhaustive list but includes merely some of the more important elements that should be considered in the selection of class advisers.

4. If possible, class advisers should be relieved of study-hall supervision, possibly of homeroom supervision, and other routine tasks in order that they may find time for personnel studies and necessary records. Coöoperating with each class adviser there should be a committee of homeroom teachers to discuss the needs of their children and plan homeroom programs to meet such needs.

5. The principal may assign to the class advisers the task of classifying pupils in groups in order to meet their instructional needs. As an aid to such work advisers should have charge of the records of educational and psychological tests. Pupils may be classified according to their educational destination, according to their educational and psychological tests, or according to the way in which they learn. Better than any of these is a composite arrived at by the adviser from the actual study of pupils in

GUIDANCE PROGRAM FOR ANY JUNIOR-HIGH SCHOOL

her grade. This should be a continuing study with the possibility of adjustment always left open.

So far, the program need not increase the costs of instruction. It can be taken care of entirely by redistribution of the "overhead" of the school.

6. At this point the principal should discuss with the superintendent the importance of an individual interview with each pupil each term or year. Without special time for such interviews advisers can see only problem pupils who are seriously unadjusted in their school work. It should not be necessary for a child to become a problem in order to receive individual attention. Such work as this has usually been considered the task of the principal, but with increasing administrative and supervisory duties these functions have been crowded out. It is much less expensive to relieve the principal of these duties and to give them to supervisory teachers than it is to have administrative and supervisory duties neglected.

7. A committee of the subject teachers of each class or the heads of departments should meet with the advisers and work out a coöperative program through which each subject teacher may have her share in the guidance program. Such work usually consists of combining occupational information with subject instruction as an aid to motivation. There is no better way to arouse the interests of pupils in any subject than to show them its practical value in the work of the world. An extensive list of such subjects for subject teachers has been prepared in chart form by Mr. J. A. Barber, head adviser in the high school at East Aurora, New York.

8. In most junior high schools the subject of occupations is being taught. Sometimes this is done in connection with civics or the social studies. It is no more expensive to teach the subject one period a week for five terms than for a five periods a

week for one term. The chief purpose of the subject is to arouse an interest in occupational information and problems. For this reason it should be like general science, a continuous orientation course rather than an intensive course for a single term. The chief disadvantage of such a one-period course can be obviated by having the subject taught by the class adviser to the pupils of her class continuously for their entire course. Such an arrangement makes the adviser wholly responsible for the background of occupational information and interest of all her pupils. It also ensures that the adviser herself will broaden her own information in the field of occupations through such instruction. This is one of the most conspicuous weaknesses of junior- and senior-high-school advisers, but if the adviser is to teach only five or six occupations per term for six terms the result upon her own background will be tremendous.

It should be noted that the foregoing arrangement constitutes merely a reorganization of work already included in the curriculum and does not add to the expense of the program. In many schools time is given in the English period, civics period, or in the homeroom period for the discussion of problems of everyday life, for work in student self government, for class meetings, for character education, and other forms of social civic orientation. Such activities left to the whims of each homeroom or subject teacher can not be supervised or used as effectively as when the work is departmentalized and taught by the class adviser. A redistribution of the program time which allows for a forum period for each section of each grade for one period each week under the direction of the class adviser is recommended. This program adjustment makes the adviser responsible not only for occupational information and interests, but also for educational and social-group orientation. In the forum period the case-conference method

in problems of everyday life is a very effective device, since it obviates the necessity of the lecture method and "preaching."

9. The principal should require every pupil who enters or leaves school to be registered with his class adviser and to have an interview with her. Each adviser should be expected to follow up all the pupils in her group during the three years of their junior-high-school career. Even if they leave the day schools they can be followed up in the evening schools or in employment.

10. The choice of electives and the choice of high schools should be supervised by the class adviser whose business it has been to study individual differences and needs. Problems involved in the nonparticipation or overparticipation of pupils in the extracurricular activities should also be supervised by the class advisers, since it is their business to provide a balanced educational diet for each child.

11. Home visits. In school systems which provide home visitors it is less necessary that the adviser should make such a visit. In systems where home visitors are not provided the class adviser should make a few home visits each term as part of her study of the causes for maladjustment in the more serious problem cases. A first-hand knowledge of home conditions has been found in practical experience to solve some of the most perplexing problems of adjustment.

12. When the work of the class advisers is well under way and their value has been demonstrated to faculty, pupils, and parents, good administration should suggest that a chairman of advisers, or head of the de-

partment be created, in order to ensure the more efficient organization of the work of the department. The head of the department is usually given an additional period for supervision and still another period free for the continuous study of the school program under the direction of the principal.

13. The next step for the principal and advisers is to build up a good guidance library including not only books on guidance and occupations, but also on character education and related subjects.

14. The superintendent and principal should then attempt to put the adviser in touch with what the rest of the country is doing. Good can be done by encouraging attendance at summer schools, membership in the National Vocational Guidance Association with subscription to the magazine, and conferences with advisers in other schools.

Most of the steps above described can be undertaken by any principal without increasing instructional costs without a vote of the school committee, and even without the necessity of requesting the permission of the superintendent. It is merely a process of rearranging the "furniture" in the high school or, more exactly, the functions of the teachers and the subjects of the curriculum. If the program is begun gradually, without the sounding of trumpets and the beating of drums, it is scarcely conceivable that there should be any objections. Rather, there should be appreciation of the initiative of the individual and recognition of his ability to organize a school for the more efficient achievement of the aims and purposes of the junior-high-school organization.

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THE CASE METHOD IN EDUCATION

MARGARET ALLTUCKER NORTON

EDITOR'S NOTE: *As assistant director, Bureau of Research, National Education Association, Mrs. Norton comes in close contact with many schools. The present article is a splendid addition to the numerous contributions which she has made to American and foreign educational journals.*

F. E. L.

The case method, the only sound basis for dealing with individual differences. The term "case method" has two connotations. In law, the case method means the study of the report of a particular piece of litigation together with the precedent which was established by the decision rendered relative to it. In education, the case method means analyzing the cumulative case record of each individual pupil to determine his abilities, interests, aptitudes, previous accomplishments, and future plans in order that the school may arrange a program of work and guidance that will best meet his individual needs.

The question with which every pupil faces his teachers when he registers in a school, at whatever level from kindergarten to university, is the same as the one with which Betsy Trotwood faced Mr. Dick on the eventful morning when David Copperfield arrived so unexpectedly at her home. She said to Mr. Dick: "Now standing before you is young David Copperfield; the question is what shall we do with him?" Mr. Dick diagnosed David's immediate difficulty as hunger and said: "Give him something to eat." Had he been thinking in terms of modern education, he would have said: "If you want to teach him, first learn to know him."

To illustrate, when a pupil reaches the age of six and registers for school attendance, he should not automatically be put in the first grade unless the work of that grade is adapted to his particular needs.

Data recently collected from representative groups of first-grade teachers in twenty-

two school systems show that the information which they most want relative to each child entering from the kindergarten includes: health data, mental age, record of attendance, character traits, quality of work done, and outstanding features of home environment. Additional suggestions as to helpful information which would make it possible for the first-grade teacher to build on the work of the kindergarten and prevent the latter from being an isolated experience were also made. The following is a complete list of types of information relative to each kindergarten child, arranged according to frequency to mention, which these first-grade teachers in twenty-two school systems report that they would like to have:

Health record, including marked physical characteristics, and health and physical-examination results

Mental age and outstanding mental characteristics

Personal, social, or character traits, statement of child's peculiarities, including temperamental trends and habits of industry and coöperation

Quality and quantity of work done—accomplishment in beginning music, construction work, etc.

Regularity of attendance and length of time spent in kindergarten

Outstanding features of home environment

Child's ability to control himself and to work in a group

Special abilities and talents—ability in self-expression and initiative

Helpful suggestions as to type of home cooperation expected

Records of reading readiness

Teacher's judgment as to ability

Psychologist's findings: in contact with new activities; in contact with new adult personality

To supply first-grade teachers with even a fraction of the above data means that cumulative case records must be begun in the kindergarten. Inquiry shows that progressive teachers in every grade desire information as to the developmental history of their pupils. They urge that such data be sent on to them from the grades below as will give them a more sympathetic understanding of each pupil. Just as the history of physical development and health records aid the physician in better understanding his patient's present condition, so a pupil's cumulative case history, showing physical, mental, and social growth and special abilities, interests, and future plans in so far as they are formulated, is a guide to the teacher in diagnosing his present needs and providing the sort of training that will be most helpful.

Will teachers be prejudiced by derogatory information? The educational diagnostician will, of course, remember that growing children change very rapidly—physical and social disabilities, given proper help, are often quickly overcome. The teacher should be an optimist looking for the best, but not blindly ignoring a child's developmental history or becoming prejudiced against him because some time in the past he made a misstep. Furthermore, the teaching body must develop the same professional ethics as has the medical profession; namely, to guard personal confidences and case history data as sacred, to be used only in such fashion as will result advantageously to the individual.

Cumulative pupil case histories contain the basic data for school counseling. If teachers require cumulative pupil case re-

ords to help them in adapting curriculum content and methods of instruction to meet the needs of the pupils in their classes, how much more necessary are these cumulative case records in all guidance activities. For in counseling a pupil it is quite as important to know his developmental history as to know his present status. To illustrate in a problem case such as daydreaming, the school counselor will want answers to such questions as these: Are the home or school conditions so unpleasant that daydreaming has developed as a means of escape? How deep-seated is the practice?

If it is a question of a choice of college course, the counselor's suggestions are merely well-intentioned conjecture if they are based on physiognomics or superficial information. The pupil's cumulative case record is a much safer guide.

In a case of social guidance, the counselor usually needs to have an understanding of the pupil's social background, for if such guidance is given blindly the pupil is frequently antagonized rather than attracted to a higher plane of thinking, purposing, and acting.

What should be included in a pupil's cumulative case history? An analysis of pupil record cards used in nearly a hundred different school systems shows that there is wide diversity of practice. This may be due to one or more of these reasons: (1) Sufficient machinery has not been set up for collecting more complete pupil case history data. (2) Adequate clerical help is lacking. (3) Lack of experience in using these data makes it difficult to determine what points to include in pupil records. (4) Some school administrators are not aware of the help that more detailed pupil case records afford.

Most school counselors are agreed that for their work they need cumulative pupil case histories which include the following data in as detailed a form as it is administratively feasible to secure it.

THE CASE METHOD IN EDUCATION

I. Identification

II. Health:

Clinical history; medical, physical, and orthopedic examinations

III. Intelligence:

Measurements by group or individual tests; unusual developmental facts; teacher's estimate based on pupil's previous academic accomplishment

IV. Other Mental Conditions:

Favorable and unfavorable

Irregularities of mental development
Examination results; developmental facts—incidents showing regular or irregular mental development from birth to the present time; cumulative evidence of persons thoroughly familiar with the individual's behavior and development; influences which alleviate or detract from the unusual mental condition; illustrative material: samples of the pupil's conversation or letter writing which will indicate a tendency towards aberration

V. School History:

Age on entering school; number of different schools attended; present grade in school; amount of pedagogical acceleration or retardation; grades skipped; grades repeated; record of scholarship: subjects taken, grades received, and accomplishment in standardized subject tests; subjects excelled in; subjects of greatest difficulty or least interest; causes of serious scholarship failure—opinions of class teachers, parents, and pupil; application or effort; persistent special interests or superior accomplishments noted by teachers in particular fields; future school plans

VI. Social and Antisocial Reactions:

Favorable reactions—concrete incidents occurring most frequently or

outstanding events showing respect for: property of others, rights of others, law and spiritual values; delinquency

VII. Amusements:

Those in which the pupil participates with others; those in which pupil participates alone

VIII. Associates:

General attitude of the individual towards companions: inclined to be solitary, to have only one or two close chums, to be a member of a gang or clique, to have many companions; age and influence of chums with whom pupil spends most time

IX. Working History:

Age at beginning work; reasons for going to work; occupational experience; present job; results on trade and ability tests; vocational ambition

X. Family History:

Nationality of parents; literacy of parents—if foreign-born, years in the United States; first or second naturalization papers; speak, read, or write English; age and grade at leaving school; occupation of parents; positions of honor, trust, or recognition held by father or mother

XI. Home Conditions:

Standard of living; marital conditions; parents interest in and co-operation with the school and community; religion; parental supervision

XII. Neighborhood Conditions:

Neatness, sanitation, and improvements; recreational facilities; institutions and establishments; social status of residents

XIII. History Subsequent to Leaving School:

Success in higher schools; success in trade or industry

Points to guard against in making a case study. In many instances it will not be possible to include, in a pupil's case history, data on all the points covered in the above outline, desirable as they may be. The points included in many case studies are determined largely by: (1) the purpose for which the case study is being made, and (2) by the counselor's hypothesis as to the best ways of accomplishing that purpose.

The making of a case study demands that a tentative outline be carefully formulated; that standardized scales for measuring desired points be used so as to have a uniform objective basis of judgment; that data be secured from records of medical and physical examinations, from office of school secretary, and from the school psychologist and director of research. A personal conference should also be held with the pupil. And a visit should be made to his home and place of employment.

In making a case study these points should be definitely guarded against.

1. Assuming a wrong mental attitude, particularly that of resting assured on some preconceived notions.
2. Giving the appearance of an investigator
3. Forgetting the excessive suggestibility of children.
4. Drawing conclusions from insufficient data.
5. Falling into habits of prejudice and cynicism.
6. Forcing one's opinion upon the pupil.
7. Following an outline slavishly.
8. Making a case history in its entirety at any one time.
9. Allowing case histories to be used by those who are not directly and vitally concerned in helping the pupil.
10. Expecting completely to understand a pupil even after making a case study.

A PROGRESSIVE SCHOOL EIGHTEEN YEARS AFTER

W. CARSON RYAN, JR.

EDITOR'S NOTE: Dr. Ryan is professor of education at Swarthmore College and an associate editor of the CLEARING HOUSE. He has recently taken a leave of absence from Swarthmore to accept the newly created position of director of education, United States Indian Service. He and Dr. Frederick G. Bonser were asked to make a survey of the Park School of Baltimore and the present article is a brief report of the findings.

F. E. L.

What may we expect after eighteen years from a school that calls itself a "progressive" school, especially one that includes work at the secondary as well as the elementary level?

It was in 1912 that the Park School of Baltimore began its career. Initiated by parents who were genuinely interested in a new kind of education for their children, administered and staffed by principals and teachers whose philosophy and practice were considered radical for their time and would still be so considered by many people in and out of the educational profession, the school has maintained itself over a comparatively long period, as pioneering ventures go. This spring the board in charge of the school

decided to take stock; they invited a committee of two outsiders to come in and look the school over. The survey committee set themselves the following questions:

1. Is the Park School of Baltimore seeking to do something that is educationally worth while?
2. How effectively is the school doing what it sets out to do?
3. In what ways can the effectiveness of the work be improved?
4. What are the possible next steps in development?

THE OBJECTIVES OF THE PARK SCHOOL

In order to find out what the principal and the teachers thought they were trying

A PROGRESSIVE SCHOOL EIGHTEEN YEARS AFTER

to accomplish, the survey committee secured from them a statement of objectives. According to this statement the Park School sought to accomplish the following:

- I. To provide the best in education for its own pupils.
To realize this objective the school endeavors to meet the requirements set out below:
 - A. To provide for development of health in body, mind, and emotions. This demands:
 1. Healthful and pleasant surroundings.
 2. A living atmosphere free from undue strain and permeated with happiness of youth.
 3. A program that provides for activities—mental, physical, and emotional—of purposeful and worth-while nature.
 - B. To look to the all-round development of the individual, and yet avoid the evils of excessive individualism. The following are essential for this objective:
 1. Opportunity for self-expression and creative output in a social situation.
 2. Classrooms that are laboratories for practice in right thinking, right emotional response, and right acting.
 3. Situations that train for self-mastery—for self-discipline—through direct practice in social situations, rather than through mere obedience to dogmatic regulations.
 4. Opportunity to practise active participation in the evaluation of community problems and in the carrying on of community life.
 - C. To provide for broad scholarship through continuous widening and enriching of the child's experience by means of contacts with the entire world of life around him as well as with the world of books and ideas. This demands the use of excursions, libraries, and all other available sources of information. It requires that the classrooms and the school be places for evaluating statements and situations and for applying knowledge to the problems of life that lie within the experience and comprehension of the child.
 - D. To inspire and direct children towards the development of an increasingly broad, generous, and fair-minded outlook on life.
 - E. To provide an active school program which will help children to have abundant life through appreciation of the contributions of the past, through living fully in the present, and through looking with plans and vision to the future. Subject matter plays a most important part as human experiences to be utilized for enrichment of life rather than as mere information to be learned.
- II. To contribute to the advancement of education.
 - A. The teachers and the school must maintain a scientific attitude towards education. They must weigh every method and procedure in the light of sound principles and

established facts, reject nothing merely because it is old, and adopt nothing merely because it is new.

- B. They must be ready to profit from the contributions of others and to share with others any worth-while discovery or method that they find.

This set of objectives the survey committee pronounced "probably one of the most satisfying that can be found for any school of our day." They commented particularly on the insistence upon wholesome surroundings, purposeful activities, opportunity for creative output, self-discipline, enriching experiences, a fair-minded outlook upon life, and the scientific attitude—above all, upon the school's acceptance of the pioneering function in education. They warned, of course, of the one risk involved in this type of objective—a pioneering provision in one generation is not necessarily such in the next, and to accept the pioneering obligation means that the school is determined to keep constantly ahead in the educational procession, welcoming advances by other schools, especially the public schools of the community, and changing as fast as changing conditions and changing knowledge of education warrant.

TOWARDS A NEW SECONDARY EDUCATION

In judging of the effectiveness of the work of the Park School, the survey committee gave special attention to content and method at the secondary level, since so little fundamental reform has been made in this field generally. At the time when the Park School was opened in 1912, American school work at all grades was probably at its worst in standardization and conventionality, but since then a virtual transformation has been wrought in the education of young children, and the procedures of a new elementary education are making inroads even into the larger and more conservative city school systems. This means that Park School work in this field, while still distinctive, can no longer be considered almost unique, as it once was. At the sec-

ondary level, however, anything that Park School and similar educational enterprises may do towards a new education is still a rarity. The survey found especially commendable in the Park School the provision of creative art opportunities for senior-high-school students—so often abandoned for boys and girls of this age because of the pressure of the so-called "regular subjects"; the recent re-working of materials in English and history; the effort to furnish an intellectual opportunity for seniors not planning to go to college; the chance for individual students to get acquainted at first hand with human problems outside; the enlightened participation in dramatic work; the combination of concern for the individual with social group experiences; and, on the side of special techniques, the "lengthened-period" plan recently put into operation. Inasmuch as the breakdown of subject-matter divisions is now an accomplished fact in many modern elementary schools, but has made almost no progress at the secondary level, there is special value in experimentation with any plan that stresses thoroughness of accomplishment, individual achievement rather than hearing of lessons, freedom from the strain of "recitations," variety of intellectual attacks, and opportunity for development of group projects.

SOME NEXT STEPS RECOMMENDED FOR
PARK SCHOOL

Although the survey committee approved of the work of the school in many important particulars, they reminded the school that it was the kind of an enterprise that could never afford to be complacent. "Park School cannot be a 'settled' institution, if it is to continue to be alive." The two most important next steps the committee recommended had to do with curriculum on the one hand and student emotional life on the other.

One of the charges frequently made against new-type schools is the apparent casualness of the content. In part, of

course, this charge is due to a misunderstanding of the philosophy underlying modern education; in part it is due to the way in which some schools have imitated what they assumed was a haphazard curricular offering, not realizing what was really back of it all. The survey committee pointed out that the latter situation makes it all the more necessary for schools like the Park School to make clear that the content they provide is not accidental, but is based on a definite understanding of principles, is organized with reference to known goals, and is reasonably consistent in its various parts. The school is urged, in the interest of secondary education generally, to enter boldly into experimentation and publication on the problem of the secondary curriculum. The committee said:

The Park School itself cannot long be satisfied with merely providing the conventional preparation in mathematics and Latin, for example. If these are to continue to be offered, they should be studied for their possibilities in modern education. It is a good thing to individualize mathematics teaching, for example, but there should be more to it than that—there is a real need for a remaking of mathematics content in terms of the progress of civilization. What Phillips Brooks said with regard to the classics in the 'eighties at the 250th anniversary of the Boston Latin School is just as applicable to most of the "ordinary" subjects that persist in secondary schools:

"To forget that days have changed is folly. The classics are not, cannot be, what they were when Ezekiel Cheever taught Cotton Mather and President Leverett their Latin Grammar. They are not and they cannot be again the tools of present life, the instruments of current thought. All the more for that they may be something better. All the more they may shine in their finished beauty in the midst of our glorious tumultuous modern life as the Greek temples stand in the same Europe which holds the Gothic cathedrals, offering forever the rest of their completeness, for the comfort of men's eagerness and discontent."

The trouble with most of us is that we often accept this view for the classic languages without realizing that it is probably true for nearly everything in the traditional secondary curriculum.

With regard to student attitudes and emotional life the survey committee had certain special recommendations. They found alertness, eagerness, energy, industry,

TRENDS OF SOCIAL TEACHING

throughout the school. "In general," said Professor Bonser, "the activities of the pupils are those through which there is genuine learning of facts, procedures, methods of work, interpretations and appreciations having personal and social worth." Nevertheless the committee found, what would be found in any group of students coming from an alert and distinctly modern urban group, indications of some of the overstimulation that constitutes one of the problems of modern life—not an overstimulation from school conditions so much as from home and social environment. While the situation was not considered to be as extreme as in other schools visited, it was pointed out that here was a special opportunity. The Park School would make a real contribution, not only to the lives of its own students, but to American living generally, if it could make a special study of the ways of securing more freedom from

strain, especially in those sections of our population that by their very alertness, their emotional energy, their aliveness to the world of today, present a special situation. The teachers have been giving attention to certain aspects of the problem this past year, and have rightly been making a study of the emotional psychology involved. It would seem possible for the school to go at this task even more directly, taking advantage of the work of Johns Hopkins in the field of modern psychology and mental hygiene as part of the effort to understand the attitude of pupils in the school. The school has already taken various steps in the direction indicated—in its lessening of the usual competition due to marks and other artificial incentives, but to the philosophy which has made this and other better points of view possible at the Park School it would now seem desirable to add some of the more specific contributions of mental hygiene.

TRENDS OF SOCIAL SCIENCE TEACHING IN DETROIT

ARTHUR DONDINEAU

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mr. Dondineau is supervisor of instruction in the Detroit, Michigan, school system. He has occupied this position for several years, although his first academic interest is in the social studies. Mr. Dondineau is the author of several books and pamphlets on the social sciences and is joint author with Dr. J. B. Edmonson of the textbook *Citizenship Through Problems*.*

C. O. D.

SOCIAL-SCIENCE TRENDS OF THE PAST

From the very inception of the idea of a democracy in America, leaders of the political life of the country advocated an educational system of general scope to accompany the experiment of government. Soon after the national government was established under the Constitution, leaders of the political and educational thought expressed in the most forceful manner the idea that the primary purpose of such an educational system was the training for citizenship. They were confident that any program of general education must include a study of the history and geography of the country, give every child a knowledge of

the government and the civil institutions, establish a favorable attitude to world and democratic institutions, and provide for a study of the theory of the supported economic system.

The real founders of public education in America were men active in political life. Washington, Madison, and Jefferson were among the first to show the need for general education. Nearly a half century following this group, education which emphasized training for citizenship was made effective through the organizing genius of Horace Mann who was also a statesman and a man of the political group.

This new emphasis given to education by Mann was not to remain long paramount in the political and social thinking. The last quarter of the nineteenth century and the early part of the twentieth century carried with it many new problems. The development of the nation's resources, the growth of new industries, the building of cities, and the need for improved forms of transportation placed the emphasis more on technical education and training for the professional expert than on citizenship. Civil institutions were taken for granted. The economic system was generally accepted. While the great majority of children were kept in school, and State after State passed compulsory school laws, the public school became more an institution focused on the training for college. During this period the social-science objectives became less well defined. Specific training for citizenship gave way to the teaching of history as a narrative to provide the story of the progress of civilization. In government, the greater emphasis was placed on the machinery and less emphasis on the function of government. Discussion of the current problems accompanying civic-social institutions was not considered of special importance in the teaching of social science.

During the past decade education has become more clearly defined. The findings of science and the developing of a new social and educational philosophy have redirected all education. Social-science teaching is beginning to reflect these changes, as was shown by a recent study in Detroit. In this investigation an attempt was made to ascertain the trends in social-science teaching from the point of view of teachers of social science in the high school and the intermediate school.¹ The results obtained in Detroit may be taken as representative of what is going on in other cities.

¹ A high school in Detroit consists of grades 10, 11, and 12. An intermediate school consists of grades 7, 8, and 9.

THE STUDY IN DETROIT

The study in Detroit was conducted by means of a questionnaire which was sent to 116 high-school teachers and 152 intermediate-school teachers early in January, 1930. The introductory statement of the questionnaire was as follows:

"The department of instruction and the social-science division are interested in getting a definite reaction from each of the social-science teachers in Detroit to certain problems and trends in the social-science field. The tabulation of the results will be used for the following purposes:

1. Curriculum building in Detroit
2. A general survey of the social-science work to be conducted in Detroit in 1931
3. To assist in a national study conducted by a committee of the American Council on Education of which Superintendent Cody is a member
4. To supply data for a study to be reported in the JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE publication."

The questionnaire consisted of two parts. Part I aimed to determine in general the trends in social-service teaching which were being practised in Detroit, and also to determine what teachers of social science considered the ideal towards which they should aim in their teaching. Part II of the questionnaire dealt with answers to certain specific questions which are of direct interest to those who are responsible for making a course in social science.

CONTENT OF PART I OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Part I of the questionnaire was as follows: "The trends in the field of social science may be classified into four groups. These four trends are reviewed briefly below. Each is designated by a letter, A, B, C, or D. Read these four synopses of the trends in order to answer the following questions:

TRENDS OF SOCIAL TEACHING

1. Which of these trends in social science is most nearly in harmony with your philosophy of education?
2. Which of the foregoing trends are you able to approach in your teaching?
3. If all the instructional material necessary were available, which of the foregoing trends, under present working conditions, would you favor?
4. In your opinion, which of the foregoing trends was probably the most common in Detroit twenty years ago?
5. In your opinion, which of the trends should Detroit move towards in the next five or ten years?

Trend A—One group holds that the primary purpose of all education is the complete natural development of an individual. The members of this group think of the child as a sovereign individual and hence they do not make any plans wholly for future citizenship, but believe that an individual who is able to solve the problem he meets today will thereby have equipped himself to solve those he shall meet tomorrow. In other words, the purpose of school is to help the pupil do better those things which he will do anyway. They would not teach the separate subjects in social science or any other subjects as such, but would have the pupil attack the problems or activities which he sees in the community about him. To solve these problems the pupils would draw upon geography, history, civics, sociology, economics, and social psychology. Hence in the solving of these problems the subjects lose their identity as separate subjects. The teacher will guide the pupils in their discussions and direct them to the best sources to answer the questions which arise concerning their problems. Thus the problems in each school, and even in the class, will vary with the type of community and the type of individuals taking the course.

Trend B—Another group holds that the primary purpose of education is to make good citizens. The members of this group believe that a child will become a good citizen if he knows the geography, history, civics, economics, and the sociology of his country and of the world. Further they believe that these subjects should be taught as separate subjects, and that, since the several subjects have been carefully and logically developed, they should not be broken up but each should be taught as a science in itself. Applications of the principles in a subject to citizenship may be made by the

teacher if he cares to, but that is not his primary task. His task is to see that the pupil has studied the cause and effect relationships and has mastered the important facts and accepted the logical arrangement of the subject. It is the responsibility of the pupil to select the principles of citizenship underlying the formation of each subject and to make applications to the situations which he will meet later in life.

Trend C—A third group holds that the primary purpose of education is training for citizenship, and that social science serves the greatest opportunity for such training. The members of this group believe that the mind is not made up of special faculties, that memory, will, reasoning, etc., are not separate compartments of the brain that can be trained specifically, but that all these traits act together to make up a personality. Further, they hold that the social-science courses in geography, history, civics, economics, and sociology should be organized about activities that will develop citizenship qualities. They would choose those activities in a particular subject that are necessary to the pupil in which he already has some understanding and interest, and they would carry the pupil into the realm of understanding and appreciation of life about him. The teacher would plan definitely to show the relationship of principles in the various social-science subjects to the problems discussed, even at the expense of logical development of the subject.

Trend D—A fourth group holds that the purpose of education is to develop in a pupil a cultural and carefully trained mind. Members of this group believe that those school subjects are best which provide for a maximum of mental training. Further, they believe that the mind is trained best through the classification and organization of the world of knowledge, and that the learning of actual material such as events, places, and laws relating to general cause and effect develops the mind so that it is able to learn more easily and to retain better those things in life which are related to the subject taught. In the field of social science they believe that geography, history, civics, economics, and sociology should be taught as separate subjects and that the emphases in these subjects should be placed upon the memorization and organization of knowledge.

Most of the teachers found little difficulty in classifying themselves with one of the above trends. Each type describes fairly well the goals or objectives of the different groups of teachers. The results of Part I of the questionnaire are given in Table I.

TABLE I
PER CENT OF TEACHERS WHO CLASSIFIED THEMSELVES UNDER THE DIFFERENT TRENDS

Questions on Trends	Type of School	Trends				Com-bination	Omit-ted	Total per cent
		A	B	C	D			
1. Which of these trends in social science is most nearly in harmony with your philosophy of education?	H. S.	31	22	35	6	6	1	100
	Int.	43	7	45	0	3	2	100
	Total	38	13	41	3	4	1	100
2. Which of these trends are you able to approach in your teaching?	H. S.	4	42	30	7	13	3	100
	Int.	9	26	53	2	7	3	100
	Total	7	33	44	4	9	3	100
3. If all the instructional material necessary were available, which of the foregoing trends, under present working conditions, would you favor?	H. S.	32	15	43	4	5	1	100
	Int.	45	3	49	1	1	1	100
	Total	40	8	46	2	3	1	100
4. In your opinion which of the foregoing trends was probably the most common in Detroit twenty years ago?	H. S.	1	2	0	91	0	6	100
	Int.	1	11	2	79	0	7	100
	Total	1	7	1	84	0	7	100
5. In your opinion which of these trends should Detroit move towards in the next five or ten years?	H. S.	34	15	41	2	7	1	100
	Int.	48	3	43	1	2	3	100
	Total	42	8	42	1	4	3	100

Table I shows the per cent of high-school and intermediate-school teachers who classified themselves under each of the questions on the trends. The table is read as follows: thirty-one per cent of the high-school teachers classified themselves as being most nearly in harmony with the philosophy of education described in trend A, twenty-two per cent in trend B, thirty-five in trend C, six per cent in trend D, six per cent in a combination of two or more trends, and one per cent omitted the question. The remainder of the table is read in the same way.

From this table the following generaliza-

tions may be made: (1) The largest percentage of teachers in both high and intermediate schools classify themselves regarding their philosophy under trends A and C. (2) The greatest percentage of teachers in their practical application in the classroom are able to approach most nearly trends B and C. (3) The majority indicated that if all instructional materials were available, they would approach, in practice, trends A and C. (4) The practice represented by trend D was most common in Detroit twenty years ago. (5) The majority of teachers thought that the trends of the social-science teaching in Detroit in the next

TRENDS OF SOCIAL TEACHING

five or ten years should be towards trends A and C.

A more general classification may be made by considering trends D and B together and trends C and A together. Trends D and B emphasize factual learning. Those who advocate these trends hold that each subject should be taught separately and that the subject is the important part of school curriculum, although advocates of trend B rationalize their position by stating that these subjects will help to make good citizens. Advocates of trends C and A are more interested in the general citizenship product. They would analyze the qualities of the good citizen and then draw upon all social subjects for illustrations and material needed to develop citizenship qualities. Classifying the answers to the first five questions in the questionnaire upon this basis, it is found that the vast majority of teachers in both the high and intermediate schools, at least theoretically, are for trends A and C. In actual classroom practice, however, nearly one half of these teachers are putting into practice the type of teaching described in trends B and D.

CONTENT OF PART II OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The second part of the questionnaire dealt with problems of a more practical nature. It consisted of questions on the type of subject matter to be included in a social-science program, methods of planning and presentation, and administrative problems which might arise in connection with the teaching of social science.

The first question in Part II dealt with the advisability of discussing controversial questions in social-science classes. Ninety-seven per cent of the intermediate-school teachers and ninety-eight per cent of the high-school teachers answered this question in the affirmative. According to the answers received from the teachers, not only should controversial questions in general be discussed in social-science classes, but a wide variety of social problems should be presented to the pupils. The only controversial question of the thirteen listed in the questionnaire about which there seemed any marked doubt was the one on religion. Even on this question one third of the teachers would permit discussion. The list of so-

TABLE II
PER CENT OF TEACHERS WHO WOULD TEACH CONTROVERSIAL QUESTIONS

Types of Questions	Per cent of teachers		
	High	Intermediate	Total
Great Lakes Waterway.....	100	99	99
Tariff.....	100	92	96
Political Parties.....	96	92	94
World Peace.....	99	99	99
Capital Punishment.....	91	93	93
Labor Organization.....	94	96	96
Seasonal Employment.....	98	95	97
Prohibition.....	87	84	85
Income Tax.....	94	90	92
Candidates for Office.....	77	84	81
Equitable distribution of property.....	83	74	73
Public Utilities.....	97	96	97
Religion.....	31	32	31

called controversial questions with the per cent of teachers who would discuss them are given in Table II.

In answer to the question, "Should lessons be planned specifically to develop desirable attitudes, or will the desirable attitudes be developed adequately by presentation of subject matter?" 62 per cent of the intermediate-school teachers and 50 per cent of the high-school teachers believed that lessons on desirable attitudes should be planned, while 29 per cent of the intermediate-school teachers and 44 per cent of the high-school teachers said the desirable attitudes could be developed adequately by presentation of the subject matter.

It was the opinion of 64 per cent of the intermediate-school teachers and 41 per cent of the high-school teachers that desirable social attitudes could be accomplished best through homogeneous intelligence groups, while 26 per cent of the intermediate and 63 per cent of the senior high-school teachers believed that these attitudes could be accomplished best through heterogeneous intelligence groups.

Nearly all teachers in both intermediate and high schools believe that a discussion of current events should be an integral part of each of the social studies. Ninety-two per cent of the intermediate-school teachers and 91 per cent of the high-school teachers

voted "Yes" on this question, while only 5 per cent of the intermediate-school teachers and 8 per cent of the high-school teachers voted "No."

Not quite so much uniformity existed among the different teachers in regard to the question, "Should vocational guidance be an integral part of the course in social science?" Eighty-eight per cent of the intermediate-school teachers and only 48 per cent of the senior high-school teachers believed that it should, while 9 per cent of the intermediate-school teachers and 46 per cent of the high-school teachers believed that it should not.

Administrators and supervisors throughout the country are not in complete agreement as to the subject that should be the core of the social-science course in the elementary school. Neither are the social-science teachers in Detroit. However, 59 per cent of the teachers in high and intermediate schools agree that geography should be the core in the elementary social-science course. Table III shows which of the other social studies were selected as the core by the remaining 41 per cent of the teachers.

More than one half of the high and intermediate teachers indicated that in their opinion geography in the elementary schools should be taught as a part of social science for a better understanding of present-day

TABLE III
PER CENT OF TEACHERS SELECTING CORE SUBJECTS

Core of Social Science in Elementary Grades	High School	Intermediate	Total
Geography.....	51	65	59
World Background History.....	8	4	6
Biographical History.....	20	13	16
American History.....	10	1	5
Civic-Social Problems.....	8	9	8
Omitted.....	3	8	6
Total.....	100	100	100

TRENDS OF SOCIAL TEACHING

problems rather than as a fund of information to be drawn upon later by the other social studies. Fifty-eight per cent of the intermediate-school teachers and 51 per cent of the high-school teachers agree that this should be the practice. A small percentage of the intermediate and the high-school teachers would teach geography for both purposes.

A large majority of the teachers think that history as a subject is essential for the understanding of social institutions. In answer to this question, 95 per cent of the high-school teachers and 87 per cent of the intermediate-school teachers answered in the affirmative. However, it is interesting to note that they would distinguish between the type of history taught to pupils who plan to graduate from high school and those who do not plan to graduate. Sixty-seven per cent of the intermediate teachers and 65 per cent of the high-school teachers would make such a differentiation, while 32 per cent of each group would not.

A larger percentage of the high-school teachers than of the intermediate-school teachers think that the study of each of the separate subjects of the social studies is of greater cultural value than the study of general social science. In answer to this question 72 per cent of the high-school teachers and 53 per cent of the intermediate-school teachers said the separate subjects give more cultural value.

CONCLUSIONS

There are at least ten conclusions which may be drawn from the results of the questionnaire.

First—A large majority of the teachers in both the intermediate and high schools believe that social science is taught primarily for developing good citizens.

Second—A good citizen is developed best through the social activities and social situations that are drawn from the medium of the social studies.

Third—A wide variety of current controversial questions should be discussed in social-science classes.

Fourth—One of the important products of social science should be desirable social attitudes.

Fifth—Current events should be an integral part of all courses in social science.

Sixth—Vocational guidance should be an integral part of courses in social science.

Seventh—A different type of social science should be offered to pupils who do not finish high school than is provided for pupils who plan to graduate.

Eighth—Social science in the elementary school should be taught less to provide a fund of information to be drawn upon later and more to give a better understanding of present-day problems.

Ninth—The desirability of homogeneous intelligence grouping for the development of proper social attitudes is a debatable question.

Tenth—From the answers to the questionnaire as a whole it may be implied that less emphasis is being placed on history and more on the more recently developed subjects such as community civics, economics, and sociology.

These conclusions drawn from the investigation would indicate that the social-science teachers, the supervisors, and the administrators are in agreement regarding the objectives of social science in Detroit.

In the seventh grade of the intermediate schools American history is the core subject, in the eighth grade, community civics, in the ninth grade, world history. In the senior high schools modern history is given as an elective in the tenth grade. American history is required in the eleventh grade and American government is an elective in the twelfth grade. Other electives in the high school are English history, Latin-American history, economics, and sociology.

The following statement prepared in 1929 by Frank Cody, Superintendent of Schools, Detroit, harmonizes closely with the trends expressed by both teachers and supervisors.

TRAINING FOR CITIZENSHIP

"In Detroit our social-science program is focused on the training for citizenship. The study of geography, history, civics, sociology, and economics functions as it should when it gives the pupils training in making their adjustment to the life of the community and the time in which they must live. The success of such a program depends upon the vision of the supervisors, principals, and teachers and upon their ability to construct and carry out a curriculum which goes beyond the goal of subjects into the realm of

understanding of social institutions and which develops in the pupils of the present generation the more important civic-social attitudes.

* * *

"There are many important activities included in our program of instruction which provides for the development of young citizens through actual participation in the affairs of everyday life. An example of these activities is the election project. Through this activity pupils learn those things which are of vital importance in a democracy; namely, how to vote and how to exercise the franchise intelligently and honestly. The ability to approach a civic problem with an open mind in order to analyze a controversial issue without bias or personal interest is a fundamental objective of social-science training."

CULTIVATING SELF-EXPRESSION IN ENGLISH¹

DIGEST OF AN ARTICLE BY
HUGHES MEARNS

Of all the changes that have taken place in the last generation, perhaps none is more far reaching in its effects than that which concedes to children their rights as individuals. This concession is being made not only by the fathers and mothers but by teachers as well. In a book recently put on the market we find the results of a five-year investigation which a far-sighted educator made in the Lincoln School of Teachers' College, Columbia University. The book is *Creative Youth*, and its author is Hughes Mearns. His object was to prove "that in a free environment children will naturally turn to artistic production of high quality."

In proof of his contention he cites numerous instances of really remarkable work done by grade students. One poem, a terse bit describing an oriental street, seems well-worth repeating in its entirety:

Scarlet skies, purple palms,
Ragged beggars whine for alms.
Orange glow on roof and dome,
Caravans returning home.
Temple, mosque, minaret
'Gainst the sky in silhouette.
Scarlet skies turn maroon;
In the east a crescent moon.
Faces veiled, sparkling eyes,
Shadowed streets in purple guise.
Lanterns gleam here and there,
All is silent everywhere.
Hark! a lute now is played;
'Tis some lover's serenade.
Soon the lute sounds no more—
All is silent as before.

The writer he classed as a wordist, a chap "enamoured of words in themselves as an interest aside from meanings." Talks with the lad revealed him as a reader of the dictionary—one who reveled in the sound of

¹ Abstract by P. H. Deffendall, reprinted from *World's Work*, October, 1929.

CULTIVATING SELF EXPRESSION IN ENGLISH

such words as fanfare, sequin, festinate, and abracadabra.

Fortunately, the boy had a mother who likewise believed that children had interests and ambitions often quite apart from those of their parents. She admitted that from the time her son began to talk he showed an unusual interest in words. That it was a real gift she was reluctant to admit, feeling that it was so only to her prejudiced eyes. "But I liked everything he did, naturally, and I let him see that I liked it. Perhaps I shouldn't, but I did. That's all I did." At another time she confessed: "But there were many things that I didn't do. I never interfered, for instance. Perhaps I am not a good sort of mother, but whatever he wanted to do, I let him. He would stay up half the night to scribble and draw and write music; I let him. Or he would be too excited to sleep at all; I let him. He ate impossible things at impossible hours; I let him. Or he would be too excited to eat at all; I let him."

This is but one of the many stories of the wise interest of mothers in their children's doings—often seemingly silly to less interested grown-ups—that Mr. Mearns recounts. But a mother must be most wise and self-effacing so to "recognize latent ability early, to encourage it with interest, and to give it a chance to grow. That's nearly all there is to the process; but that is a great deal."

In a camp located in the Catskill Mountains the younger boys and girls are given opportunity to do creative work. In the notebook of one of these boys were found these strange and serious lines. They seem to portray an attitude of mind of a boy who has met with some tragical experience.

Death passed by my door
And left me with a chill
So that I sought the fire.

Death passed. I saw him:
He was tall, and mockingly robust;
On his head was an opera hat and on his feet a
dirty pair of shoes.

For a moment I found myself wishing that when
Death went by
I might hug the fire and the fire's warmth, with
the door close locked;
That I might leave the pavement to Death.
I hoped that I would not become intimate with
Death until I had exhausted Life's friendship . . .

What matters it

Whether I dwell with the lilies and the roses in
the parlor of the House of God
Or with the lilies and the roses in His garden?

Professor Mearns goes on to admit that there exists a real difficulty in being able to tell when such whims are merely silly and when they are the work of a genius. He further agrees that often "the first signs of a creative gift look surprisingly like foolishness." But he does point out that an all-absorbing, all-powerful interest is a strong symptom. He urges mothers to keep a record of the efforts of their children, for such a record reveals the child's true self. Likewise he discourages parents teaching their children doggerel rhymes, set phrases and verse and prose made by adults. He contends that to do so deprives them of valuable experiences in self-expression.

In conclusion, Professor Mearns urges the need, seemingly in direct contrast to all he has previously said, of making the child realize that in giving rein to his self-expression he must not run counter to his elders or to the unchanging customs of the world. They must learn diplomacy in expressing views that differ from the prevailing run. They must learn that often their best efforts are derided and that there is a great danger to youth of a needless martyrdom. They must also learn that it is folly to begin a lone fight with authority or any established social group and that, while youth may often know more than its elders, it is never wise to hint that it does. In short, Mr. Mearns urges merely a training in good manners. Thus equipped with taste and judgment, children may face life with qualities that come from within rather than those from without—and no better preparation for life than that can be found.

OTHERS SAY

FLOYD E. HARSHMAN

A new phase of the work at the New York University summer session during the past summer was the inclusion of activities as a part of the curriculum. Carrying out such a program gives point to the insistent demand of educators that we take the "extra" out of "extracurricular."

The vocational aspect of such a program for teachers and prospective teachers is probably as significant as many subject-matter courses. Participation in the activities gives teachers a new appreciation for the program in their own schools.

Under the leadership of Mr. W. A. Gore, the students planned their assemblies, dances, excursions, games, receptions, teas, club meetings, dinners, the Annual Frolic at the Heights, and bi-weekly newspaper.

Junior-High-School Conference

On August 7, at Fordham University, a conference was conducted which attracted wide attention in the Metropolitan district. Since the summer schools of the district enroll many thousands of persons from distant States, the influence of the meeting will be far reaching.

The topics discussed were: curricula, guidance, articulation, teaching technique, character education, and individual differences. The following speakers took part. Rev. Miles J. O'Mallia, S. J., Dean, Professor Philip W. L. Cox, New York University, Professor E. W. Jacobson, Teachers College, Columbia University, Professor Henry E. Hein, Fordham University, Rev. William R. Kelly, Fordham University, Sister Berenice, New Rochelle College, and Professor Forrest E. Long, New York University.

Meeting of Deans of Girls

The following announcement will be of great interest to deans of girls in many high schools.

The Research Committee of the New York State Deans Association is at present undertaking the work of studying the problems of students who come to the office of the dean of women. Records of personal problems were kept for one month by many deans in New York State. These records have been returned, to date, by deans in four colleges, three normal schools, and two junior high schools. More than 1000 records are now available and are being tabulated.

This study ought to give very interesting information concerning the kinds of problems that come to deans and the frequency of different problems; the extent to which they are voluntary and involuntary,

and the average amount of time spent in these kinds of interviews.

The Committee on Correlation between High School and College is continuing its work on the interesting problems begun last year on the subject of what records the high school should pass on to the college and what reports the high school should expect to receive from the college.

Many worth-while ideas in the above mentioned projects are expected to be presented at the annual meeting of the Association which will take place next November at Syracuse, New York.

Junior College Journal Begins Publication October, 1930

A new national educational periodical, the *Junior College Journal*, will begin publication in October, 1930. It will be published by Stanford University Press, and will be under the joint editorial control of the American Association of Junior Colleges and the School of Education of Stanford University. The new journal will appear monthly with the exception of the summer months.

Dr. Walter C. Eels, of the Stanford University School of Education, will be editor-in-chief of the new periodical, with Doak S. Campbell, of Nashville, Tennessee, secretary of the American Association of Junior Colleges, as associate editor. A national editorial advisory board of twenty men will include the members of the executive committee of the American Association of Junior Colleges, and other men who are recognized as national leaders in the organization and development of the junior-college movement.

Advances are continually being made in the requirements in American universities. The following shows a tendency towards liberalizing the college program.

The faculty of the College of the University of Pennsylvania has decided that the study of Latin or Greek shall no longer be a requirement leading to the degree of bachelor of arts.

The ancient languages have been placed in the same category as modern languages, and the undergraduates will now be permitted to select any one or more of the languages to obtain the necessary credits for the collegiate degree. Candidates for the A.B. degree have hitherto been obligated to complete a minimum of three units of college Latin or Greek.

* From *Journal of Education*, July 17, 1930.
* *Journal of Education*, August, 1930.

BOOK NOTES

Snedden Urges More Vocational Schools to Curb Crime

One of the greatest single factors in the increase of our criminal population is the absence of any organized system of vocational education in this country, Professor Snedden of Columbia University believes. He suggested the establishment of public vocational schools for auto mechanics, carpenters, electricians, and plumbers. Under his plan the schools would be conducted on the all-day system along the lines of professional schools of medicine, law, and engineering.

"No adequate efforts have yet been made," Professor Snedden said, "to conserve the vocational productive powers of adolescent and young adult

workers. Except in the professions, America has no positive policy of conserving and increasing the vocational potentialities of our millions. The rule is each for himself and the devil take the hindmost—as it was a century ago.

"It is highly probable that the greatest single socially controllable factor in the production of young criminals today is the absence of opportunities and compulsions to take direct vocational training at critical times in the evolving life of the individual."

The contention of many educators, that vocational education can be integrated into the existing high-school system, was assailed by Professor Snedden. Only students of post-high-school age, he said, would profit by vocational courses.

BOOK NOTES

EDITOR'S NOTE: *This page will be devoted to comments on current books of general interest. The American Library Association has agreed to conduct the page. The notes this month have been prepared by Miss Mabel Williams, Supervisor of the Work with Schools, The New York Public Library.*

F. E. L.

TWO RECENT AMERICAN NOVELS

In the last year there have been at least two good novels written by Americans, inspired by the vigor and beauty of American life.

The Great Meadow, by Elizabeth Madox Roberts, is almost a saga of the pioneer woman. Diony Hall lived in sight of the Blue Ridge Mountains. She listened to the hunters telling of the wonders of "Kentuck." When Berk Jarvis asked her to go into the wilderness with him she was ready. "They went plodding down under noble trees, their limbs crooked to the weariness of going . . ."

As the story swings on to its fine ending, we are swept to heights of feeling in spite of the simplicity of the plot, doubtless because Miss Roberts is no less a poet in her prose than in her poetry.

Laughing Boy by Oliver LaFarge is not a historical novel. The author spent a short time in the Navajo country. What he has written was created from his imagination, inspired by the simplicity and love of beauty that he found in these Indians of the desert.

The story has something of the quality of a legend. Laughing Boy is the ideal Navajo—lover of beauty, pure in heart. We enter into his spirit, we glory in his power, and are moved by his great love for Slim Girl.

Even at the end when he must go on, leaving Slim Girl in her Navajo tomb, his sense of the oneness of all beauty carries him through. Her spirit is still with him. "Never alone, never lamenting, never empty. Ahalani, beautiful."

M. W.

SOME RECENT BOOKS

Selected from *The Booklist*

Published by the A. L. A.

Points East (Narratives of New England),
by Rachel Lyman Field. New York:
Brewer and Warren, 1930, 126 pp. illus.
\$2.00.

Each of the four long narrative poems that make up the greater portion of this book is placed definitely in seacoast Maine. They all tell a personal story of people whose lives were touched by splashes of color and romance brought to them by seafaring men. The poet's style and diction are admirably suited to the material.

The Magic of the Stars (translated by Alfred Sutro), by Maurice Maeterlinck. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company, 1930, 147 pp. \$2.50.

Charming, stimulating essays on some modern scientific conceptions of astronomers, physicists, and mathematicians, and the significance of their theories to man in his expanded view of the universe. *Contents:* Introduction—The immensity of the universe—The earth—Sidereal influences.

A New Economic Order, edited by Kirby Page. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1930, 387 pp. \$3.00.

Twenty-four authors contributed to this book, the first half of which consists of four debates—

presenting the pros and cons of capitalism, fascism, communism, and socialism. Following these are chapters by J. B. S. Hardman, H. W. Laidler P. H. Douglas, I. M. Rubinow, and others, suggesting means by which the present competitive system may be transformed into a co-operative order.

The Bird-Lovers' Anthology, compiled by Clinton Scollard and J. B. Rittenhouse. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin and Company, 1930, 299 pp. \$2.00.

This well-chosen collection contains almost all well-known bird poems by modern English and American poets, and many lesser known ones. Conveniently bound in a small volume, with author, title, and first line indexes.

BOOK REVIEWS

Our Junior High School, by HAROLD LYMAN HOLBROOK and A. LAURA McGREGOR. Book I of the Guideposts for Junior High School Years edited by James M. Glass (Allyn and Bacon, 1928. 211 pages).

Our Junior High School is a book designed for the use of the pupil in the seventh-grade guidance class. The authors state that their purpose is to interpret the school to the student and this they do in an interesting manner.

The policy of the school in the past has been either to take it for granted that the pupil knows the specific purposes of the education he receives, or to take the attitude that pupils should accept the education given them, relying upon the good judgment of their elders that this practice is wise and best. This policy is out of harmony with the new junior-high-school idea. There is no reason why the purpose of the activities program, the clubs, the student government, and the school organization should be kept a deep, dark secret. This book subscribes to the idea that the values of such procedures are greatly increased by an understanding on the part of the pupils of the objectives which their school hopes to attain by its organization.

The book explains in a way interesting to young people the program of the typical junior high school with its constant and elective courses. It describes report-card day as the day when "ships" come in and shows how the good ships "Scholarship" and "Citizenship" will return laden with those things for which they were sent. The attractive

manner in which the various problems are treated is designed to create a fine attitude on the part of the students towards their school.

The authors in the preface suggest that the junior high school must incorporate activities into its program. They consistently follow this procedure in the development of their book. Perhaps one of the most outstanding features of the series of lessons planned is the number of challenging problems which follow each chapter.

Certainly this little volume would be valuable not only to the student but would help teachers and parents get a clearer idea of the function of the junior high school in every community.

DOROTHEA CLARK.

Our World of Work, by HAROLD LYMAN HOLBROOK and A. LAURA McGREGOR. Guideposts for Junior High School Years edited by James M. Glass (Allyn and Bacon, 1929. 351 pages).

This book is designed for guidance classes at the eighth- or ninth-grade level.

A well-educated and intelligent father recently complained to the school authorities of his city that since his two daughters of twelve and thirteen years of age had already decided upon their college careers, it was nonsensical for them to spend their time in a guidance class learning the qualifications of a farmer or a factory hand. It seems quite probable that if this parent had had the opportunity to read the book *Our World of Work* he would have seen the value of such a course in helping students

BOOK REVIEWS

understand the problems of workers and in gaining a respect for all honest occupations.

To aid the pupil to gain this broad viewpoint the authors have simplified the understanding of the world's work by dealing with the five great fields of labor—agriculture, business, industry, homemaking, and professions. In each field, three levels of training are discussed: the little skilled, the skilled, and the science or professional levels. When it is recalled that there are five or six thousand occupations in the country it is easily seen how much more understandable this plan is.

It is not the topics dealt with, however, which make the book of so great value. Its greater worth lies in the skillful relating of the pupils' problems with the general topics; in the illustrations with their pertinent questions; in the "thinking through" problems; and the many practical suggestions as to trips that might be taken to interesting places in the community.

Not only are the knowledge objectives of education emphasized but the fostering of ideals and the development of appreciations are not neglected. No pupil could read the quotations at the head of the first few chapters, or select mottoes for his "guide post" without feeling the dignity of a worthwhile occupation.

As supplementary reading, the book should be of great value but in the hands of a capable and resourceful teacher it would be a vital tool in the shaping of the guide posts to education.

DOROTHEA CLARK.

Women Pioneers, by JAYNE Y. McCALLUM (Johnson Publishing Company, 1929, 251 pages).

Women Pioneers meets a need of the social-science teachers of the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades. It contains a brief biography of fourteen of our leading American women, beginning with Anne Hutchinson and ending with Anna Howard Shaw.

The sketches are written in a rather pleasing style for pupils of this level; the vocabulary is not difficult. The historical importance of each woman is made very real. Many excellent quotations are sandwiched in with the story such as this one by Frances E. Willard:

Be true to the dreams of your youth.

Hold fast the high ideals that flash upon your vision in hours of exaltation.

However, true to convention, all are sainted in the George never told a lie fashion. Some too might object to the distribution by States or sections since eight are from Massachusetts, two

from New York, two from South Carolina, one from Maryland, and one from Virginia.

C. M. BENNETT.

Science in the Service of Health, by ELLIOT R. DOWNING (Longmans, Green and Company).

Science in the Service of Health is an unusual book with a new point of view that has too long been neglected in science teaching. The author has written a fascinating account of the story of the stimulus and motives and emotions which actuated the study of great scientific problems and the discovery of the fundamental laws governing health and victory over disease. The book is impregnated with living, pulsating human beings who got their inspiration from their environment, in some cases even as children, for a call to the service of humanity. It relates hitherto untold stories for children of heroes who faced illness and death voluntarily that the world might be safe for happier generations to follow.

It is the kind of book that lays a foundation to inspire the awakening youth of today. The author might well have added another chapter on the science of nutrition—a field sadly neglected among the children who will read this book.

DANIEL R. HODGDON.

A Work Book for Principals and Supervisors, by ROBERT HILL LANE (Macmillan Company, 1930. 263 pages).

The Work Book consists of a series of problems which were used by the author as the basis for courses in education at the University of Southern California. The book is divided into three parts.

The first part, entitled "The Principal and His School," is confined to problems of school administration. The problems constitute an extensive survey of the duties of the principal as they relate to his teaching staff, the pupils, and the community.

The second part, "Supervision in the Elementary School," consists of a series of problems which include some of the better practices of classroom management and teaching technique.

The third part, "Making and Interpreting the Course of Study," embodies the modern viewpoint in educational methods. Pupil activities and problem solving constitute the basis for the major portion of the content.

The appendix is a valuable addition to the entire volume.

A reader suggests

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BY and large, CLEARING HOUSE readers are an appreciative group. Many are the letters of commendation and approval we receive from them. Lately one of our enthusiastic supporters suggested that more readers would be glad to help augment the circulation of the CLEARING HOUSE if it were but suggested to them.

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The book as a whole is practical, interesting, and in keeping with the problems of our modern educational world.

PAUL S. MILLER.

A Personnel Study of Deans of Girls in High Schools, by SARAH M. STURTEVANT and RUTH STRANG (Columbia University Press, 1929. 150 pages).

This is a report of an investigation concerned with the title, experience, scholastic preparation, salaries, and duties of deans of girls. The method of study, analysis of information at hand, and form of the report are characteristic of careful students. The publication of the report is entirely justifiable and its wide distribution and use should be vigorously encouraged.

There are limitations to the report, however, that the reader should observe. Most serious is the omission of any recognition of the importance of studying the duties of other officers in a high-school personnel department and the interrelations of duties as they should be performed by all personnel officers. The report stops with the admission that deans of girls have a great variety of duties, that they think certain duties are of primary concern to their office, and that others should be performed in cooperation with their professional colleagues or with outside agencies. This report would increase in value enormously if studied in connection with comparable reports of related elements in the total situation. The most casual student of high-school personnel problems knows that there is a distressing amount of overlapping among the duties of deans, school physicians, school nurses, psychiatrists, psychologists, visiting teachers, attendance officers, counselors, guidance directors, advisers, and so on through the list of various titles. Not many school systems can afford a full complement of personnel workers as conceived by enthusiastic specialists. What ones are indispensable? What should be their primary responsibilities? What cooperative relations should exist and how can a program of articulation be organized and administered? These are questions that school board members, superintendents, and principals ask and they must have satisfactory answers if personnel work is to advance as far and as rapidly as its importance warrants. These questions and others like them have no part in this investigation, to be sure, but such problems as they suggest should be clearly stated in the report. The authors then, would reduce the risk of being considered too narrowly specialized in their outlook on the problems of high-school education. On the contrary, the practical school administrator readers

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BOOK REVIEWS

would be favorably attracted to the report. Their active interest is after all greatly to be desired.

NED H. DEARBORN.

A Study of Introvert-Extravert Responses to Certain Test Situations, by Raymond Alfred Schwegler. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929, v + 183 pages, \$2.00.

This is an unusual doctor's dissertation on a most unusual subject. The purpose of the investigation is to find the differences, if any, between the introvert and the extravert in test situations. A number of different tests, including those determining intelligence and the pure psychological tests of association, multiple choice, color naming, and others were used. Dr. Schwegler concludes that there are definite measurable and reliable differences between some aspects of the introvert and extravert, especially those between the ages of twelve and eighteen.

These behavior differences involve the speed of manual movement, the speed of aesthetic decision, the speed of responding to verbal stimuli, the quality of the response to verbal stimuli, the quality and quantity of response to ink blots, the ability to make a high score on a motor-mental test, the tendency to be aware of neurasthenoid, psychasthenoid, and autistic symptoms or habits, and probably the amount of emotional output. The chronological ages within the limits which were considered do not seem to have any effect on the tendency for introverts and extraverts to present the characteristic trends noted. The author further states that it is doubtful whether the behavior trends are greatly affected by differences in intelligence if these differences lie within the ordinary limits of "normal intelligence." Introverts make the impression of having a flatter, less vivid effective life than do extraverts. In any case their overt expressions of effect were far less numerous and far more rigorously censored than those of the extravert group.

The study is a scientific, statistical piece of work, exceedingly well done and should be read by all those interested in this form or phase of psychology. It is entirely too technical for the ordinary layman or teacher who is not well versed in the techniques of statistics and psychological research. There is a splendid bibliography at the end to guide those who wish to do the reading. It is a real contribution to the "new" psychology.

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Principles of Guidance, by Arthur J. Jones. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1930, xxiv + 381 pages. \$3.00.

Professor Jones has assembled an abundance of significant material on the major phases of guidance and has presented it in four parts as follows: Part One, The Meaning, Purpose, and Aim of Guidance; Part Two, Methods of Investigation in Guidance; Part Three, Methods of Guiding Students; Part Four, The Results of Guidance. There is little new in the material he presents and there are no unique suggestions for improving guidance in the schools. The author assumes that guidance is on the defensive and proceeds to make a strong case for it. "This book has been written with the purpose of making clear the real meaning and significance of guidance, especially as it is related to the public school." This aim, as stated in the preface, has been adhered to throughout.

Professor Jones is most convincing when he considers guidance as inherent in the process of education, although he frequently comes near to an acceptance of the idea that guidance is something to be "given." Especially is this true where he advocates advising certain pupils "not to go to college at all," and where he stresses the "decision" of the counselor.

One of the basic assumptions of guidance, according to Dr. Jones, is the infrequency of specialized abilities. He does not assume that guidance is a search for the one thing that a pupil can do best but rather a search for the field or fields in which the pupil will likely succeed with the greatest amount of happiness. Without a doubt the present volume will find a large place in college classes for beginning counselors and among prospective junior- and senior-high-school administrators.

F. E. L.

The Psychology of Adolescence, by Edgar James Swift. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1930, 431 pages. \$2.25.

Dr. Swift has written another interesting book which will be read by many teachers. He has carefully avoided confusing and technical psychological terminology and has presented his ideas in a popular and pleasing style. While his book carries the title of *The Psychology of Adolescence*, it might have been called *Some Observations on Rearing and Educating Children*, for he presents little experimental or "scientific" evidence but much "common sense." One recognizes the influence of G. Stanley Hall in many of the conclusions and

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BOOK REVIEWS

recommendations. Professor Swift gives much credit to Hall for the present interest in the study of childhood.

Probably the most interesting chapters for the teacher in the secondary school are the following: "The Child Makes His Debut," "The Age of the Vanishing Question," "Play and Its Psychology," "Boys," "Girls," "Adolescence," "Superior Children." The educational and social philosophies of many readers will not coincide with the philosophy presented by Dr. Swift but every chapter carries a challenge which will stimulate a critical analysis of classroom and home procedures. Such statements as "vocational courses lack content and outlook," and "the present writer is not concerned with the morality or immorality of shooting craps. Probably the game is just as moral as some of the business actions of adults," illustrates the types of controversial issues discussed.

F. E. L.

Applied Science for Metal and Wood Workers, by William H. Dooley. New York: Ronald Press Company, 1923, viii + 559 pages. \$2.25.

A text designed to meet the needs of particular industrial, trades, continuation, or apprentice classes where instruction is intensive. It is divided into two separate sections, the first dealing with an elementary study of physics and chemistry necessary to understand the underlying principles used in the fundamental trades; the second relating specifically to the metal and wood-working trades.

The material presented is clear, concise, technical, essential, and practical, a good example being, "The Transmission of Electrical Energy," wherein we find discussions of the practical uses of electricity, electrical apparatus, wiring, requirements of the trade, switchboards, current transmission, measurement of current, sizes of wire, kilowatt and kilowatt hour, and injuries in electrical work.

Each chapter is followed by a list of practical problems and questions which stimulate interest and reflective thinking. It is an excellent supplementary text for use in the secondary high school as well as being a superior text for vocational education.

C. T. SECOR.

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The Use of Practice Exercises in the Teaching of Capitalization and Punctuation, by John Ball Leonard. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930, Contribution to Education No. 372. \$1.50.

This is a report of an experiment made on ninety-eight pupils in the eighth and ninth grades of the Ethical Culture School in New York City. The primary purpose was "to determine whether the use of practice exercises in the nature of proof-reading, error, correction, and dictation-practice materials improved pupils' ability to write compositions free from error."

The usual experimental and control groups were used. Both groups were given initial standardized tests in these writing mechanics and they also wrote compositions. The experimental group was then given specific practice work designed by the experimenter for eleven lesson periods. The control group was subjected to a variety of exercises, some of them quite general, but all of them commonly used in the schools. The tests were again administered and compositions written.

Both groups showed significant improvement, but in nearly every detail the experimental group surpassed the control group. The implication is that the specific exercises in proof-reading, error, correction, and dictation, are superior to the more general, indirect, and varied exercises, studies of rules, etc.

The experiment is convincing and the general conclusions acceptable. The reviewer raises two questions: first, did not taking the children into the investigator's confidence predispose the children to labor for results favorable to the experiment? Second, would the comparison and contrast have been more reliable after the control group had had their learning concentrated on a few activities (as was in cases with the experimental group) rather than diffused over a considerable number?

WALTER H. BARNES.

Progressive Practices in Directing Learning, by Anthony Ray Palmer. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930, 300 pages. \$2.00.

This book should be called *Prevailing Practices in Directing Learning*. The book is written in a very simple, concise style; in fact the exposition seldom challenges thought, leaving the reader only a clear explanation of the prevailing practices of our modern schools.

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BOOK REVIEWS

The author has brought to the inexperienced teacher and to the young student of education in our normal schools and teachers' colleges a very valuable survey of the present field of methods where the contribution might well be used as a text. The experienced teacher or student of education will find nothing new in this book and very little material which might be denominated as progressive.

ARTHUR M. SEYBOLD

English Composition, by May McKittrick and Marietta Hyde West. New York: American Book Company, 1930, 595 pages. \$1.44.

This is a textbook arranged in the unit or block plan for students of English composition and functional grammar in the high schools. This book has come from teachers of practical experience in the laboratory or the classroom, and, for this reason, it will be accepted by teachers in the field as a definite contribution in textbook writing. The book furnishes the pupil with a comprehensive background which enables him through correct usage to increase his ability to get a living, and, by practical and inspirational suggestions, it makes it possible for him to enjoy literature more thoroughly.

The material has been developed in a spiral or progressive plan so that the lessons increase in degrees of difficulty as the vocabulary, the experience, and the intelligence of the students advance towards maturity.

The exposition is clear, direct, and concise so that the reader may grasp assignment directions quickly. It is also placed in the realm of adolescent experience with ample provision for excellent motivation. Because of these qualifications, the book should have an extended use in our schools.

ARTHUR M. SEYBOLD

Simple French from Great Writers, edited by Alfred I. Roehm and E. M. Lebert. Richmond, Virginia: Johnson Publishing Company, Lafayette Series, 1930, 198 pages. \$1.24.

This is a collection of shorter passages from leading prose writers of France, some of whom are old friends with old wares, but there are enough new ones, not usually found in such modern language texts, to make the book worth while. The inclusion of Dehamel, Roland, Voltaire, Rousseau, and even Diderot, is indeed a welcome innovation. Anatole France and Daudet with new

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